# THE CLASSICAL QUARTERLY

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## ADNOTANDA IN LATIN PROSODY.

#### I. diutius.

THE statement in the second-and-third edition of Sommer's excellent Handbuch der lateinischen Laut- und Formenlehre (1914), p. 462, that the oldest scansion is diūtius, to say nothing of the unqualified assertion in our current grammars and dictionaries that the u in it and in diutissime is long or the regrettable silence of the principal editors of Plautus upon the subject, is of itself sufficient warrant for a brief discussion. The relevant facts are these:

 Though diu is common enough in verse of all kinds, the comparative is not attested for any but writers in iambics, while the superlative appears to be confined to prose.

2. diutius is found

(a) (i.) At the end of an iambic or trochaic line in the following passages: Plautus Trin. 685

sicut dixi faciam; nolo te iactari diutius

Terence Haut. 102

cottidie accusabam: 'hem tibine haec diutius'

Similarly in Ter. Haut. 424; 834; Phorm. 569; Hec. 148. Pacuuius fr. 181; Afranius fr. 49.

Phaedrus 1, 2, 16

hoc mersum limo cum iaceret diutius

(ii.) In other places of the line:

Ter. Phorm. 182

nam non potest celari nostra diutius iam audacia

Pomponius fr. 21

'non esuribis diutius.' 'qua re?' rogas

Laberius fr. 62

dum diutius retinetur, nostri oblitus est

Phaedrus 3 epilog. 14

fruar diutius si celerius cepero

1 Including the new edition of Georges (1913) read 'diffurnus,'
'diffins bei ältern Dichtern' in which we also

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The remaining example known to me is Turpilius fr. 62 ap. Non. 215. 26 (Lindsay):

set néqueo ferre hunc diutius erráre et conqueri nec esse suáe parum obsequéllae.

(b) Plautus Rudens 93 in the traditional text, which with its context is as follows:

PLESIDIPPVS. et uos a uostris abduxi negotiis,
neque id processit qua uos duxi gratia, 90
neque quiui ad portum lenonem prehendere.
sed mea desidia spem deserere nolui.
eo uos, amici, detinui diutius.
nunc huc ad Veneris fanum uenio uisere
ubi rem diuinam se facturum dixerat.

Of minor importance are the quantities of certain related words, to wit
 (a) diū (b) diūtinus (c) diūturnus.

The lines cited under 2 (a) cannot be scanned if the word had the quantity which it appears to have in 2 (b). They can be scanned if the u is short, or again, if, supposing it to be long, the i is got rid of by the hypothesis that it is consonantized or absorbed. The latter trisyllabic scansion, though advocated by Ritschl on Trin. 685 citing Fleckeisen Jahrb. 101 (1870) 69 sqq., has been rightly condemned by L. Mueller de re metrica 431 and Havet Phaedr. p. 214. It lies exposed to two grave objections. It assumes a change at the threshold of a word without example or analogy in historic Latin; and it provides no explanation of the avoidance of the word in dactylic metres, for which it would have been as convenient as longius or saepius.

The conclusion to which we are forced is that in the long list of passages which I have cited the scansion is divitus. This brings Plautus Rudens 93 into sharp conflict with Trinummus 685. As a lengthening of divitus to divitus is out of the question, the difficulty can only be resolved by supposing that Rudens 93 is corrupt. Dziatzko proposed detiniui, the grammarian Charisius having told us that the ueteres used teniui for tenui 3. I p. 220 (Gramm. Lat. I. 248 2 Keil). We might also insert tum after amici, which would improve the passage by providing an antithesis to nunc in the following line.

Too much has been made of the discrepancies in the related words. diŭtius by the side of diū need not trouble us more than maledicentior by the side of maledicus and a stem diŭt- is attested also for diŭt-urnus, a formation like noct-urnus, tacit-urnus. It may be observed in passing that diuturnus 'long lasting,' applicable to persons as well as things, is not a simple synonym of diutinus which means rather 'long extended' 'lengthy,' and this latter adjective can be derived without offence from diū, as cras-tinus from cras, pris-tinus from \*prīs (=prius, cf. pris-cus) and the late serō-tinus from sero.

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### II. attodisse or attudisse?

In the Appendix Vergiliana lines 6 sqq. of Cataletton 10 appear in recent editions as follows:

et hoc negat Tryphonis aemuli domum negare nobilem insulamue Caeruli ubi iste post Sabinus ante Quintio bidente dicet attodisse forfice (edd. forcipe) comata colla ne Cytorio iugo premente dura uulnus ederet iuba.

attondisse is the reading of all the MSS. except the oldest. It is incompatible, it is true, with the metre; but it is at least a Latin perfect and it gives the required sense. What are we to say of attodisse which the recommendation of Buecheler and the spell of the Bruxellensis have imported into the text? This: that attodisse, if it were a Latin form at all, should have a long vowel, as odi fodi and so forth have, and would therefore be no better for the verse than its discredited rival; and that attodi will be the perfect of attondeo when respodi is the perfect of respondeo.

Now it is the case that tondeo was confused with tundo in popular speech as is shown by a rustic calendar in C.I.L. I. p. 28 (2nd ed.) OVES TVNDVNT LANA LAVATVR and W. Heraeus on the Appendix Probi Archiv XI. p. 325 (cf. Sommer Handbuch p. 66). So it seems possible that we should write attudisse. But there is another possibility. atto(n)disse may be a gloss on the original word which a passage of the younger Pliny may then help us to restore Ep. 7. 27. 12 'Is uisus sibi cernere quendam in toro residentem admouentemque capiti suo cultros atque etiam ex ipso uertice amputantem capillos. ubi inluxit, ipse circa uerticem tonsus, capilli iacentes reperiuntur.' amputasse with colla only would have a different sense, Seneca Thyseses 727; but 'comata colla' is the equivalent of capillos which the metre would not admit. I may explain in concluding that I have preferred the forfice of Heyne to the forcipe of the MSS. and the editors, since it is more likely that the nags were clipped with a pair of shears than with a pair of tongs.

#### III. natrix 'watersnake.'

A recent paper in Classical Philology in which much pains and ingenuity are spent on recommending a double false quantity in Plautus<sup>1</sup> may well serve as a warning not to put too much trust in dictionaries.

In spite of Quicherat and Lewis neither of the vowels of this word is long, as can be seen from Lucilius ap. Non. 65. 29 'si natibus natricem impressit crassam et capitatam' and, as I shall presently show, inferred from Lucan 9. 720 'et natrix uiolator aquae,' the only two places where it occurs in Latin verse, while the shortness of the first vowel is vouched for by its congeners in

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<sup>1</sup> natricis for nütrīcis Bacch, 434.

other Indo-European languages, e.g. English 'adder' formerly nadder and in Scotch and other dialects nadder still.

In the improper use of natrix by Lucilius the gender is feminine,¹ but masculine in the proper use of Lucan. Other passages are indecisive; Cicero Acad. 2. 120 'tantam uim natricum uiperarumque,' Columella I. 5. 6 'natricum serpentiumque pestes,' Seneca Dial. 4. 31. 8 'ne uiperas quidem et natrices,' Suetonius Calig. II where it is applied to Caligula, nor can we infer anything from its transference to denote a plant Pliny N.H. 27. 107 'natrix uocatur herba cuius' e.q.s. The only other occurrence of it that I know is in a collection of glosses on Juvenal, Corp. Gl. V. p. 656. 32 'Natricem explodit serpentem excludit et expellit.' This glossary, while mainly drawn from the extant Satires, includes accretions from other sources, and one of such must the present gloss be. 'natricem explodit' might be a fragment of a hexameter; and, since explodere in the sense of expellere (cf. Seneca Dial. 6. 10. 6 'fortuna luctatos cum fluctibus ne in harenam quidem aut litus explodet sed in alicuius inmensae uentrem beluae decondet') seems to belong to familiar speech possibly also from Lucilius.²

We cannot of course argue from Lucan's use that the masculine gender of natrix was the common or exclusive one in his time; but we may feel confident that he would not have coupled 'uiolator aquae' with a noun which, like 'nātrīx,' could not have failed to suggest to his ear and to his readers' ears a

feminine verbal substantive.

When precisely arose the mispronunciation to which we owe the confusion that still obsesses our lexicographers it is not possible to say; but we find it established in Priscian (II. p. 165. II sq. Keil) 'In ix, si paenultima breuis est masculina sunt: "hic calix," "hic uarix," excipitur "haec salix" et haec filix . . . alia uero feminina sunt haec "mātrix," "cōrnix," "lōdix" et omnia uerbalia ut "uictrix," "nutrix," "meretrix," "natrix," quod tamen cum speciem anguis significat masculini quoque inuenitur': Lucanus in VIII 'et natrix uiolator aquae'; and so Phocas (Gramm. Lat. V. 421. 15 Keil).

#### IV. abies, etc.: abiit, etc.: Anien, lien, rien.

I. abies, aries, paries.

I do not suppose I am the first to wonder why these three nominatives, all of the form oo-, have dissociated themselves in the quantity of their final syllable from the rest of the class with genitives ending in -etis or -itis. But I imagine that the fiction of the 'Vowel Lengthened in arsi,' reinforced perhaps by the fact that in their oblique cases they were assisted into verse by means of another 'poetic licence,' has stifled the desire for further inquiry. It may

of two glosses 'natricem serpentem' and 'explodit excludit et expellit' or, if a single gloss perhaps a scrap from a Christian poet's hexameter. have diffined that consocial begin sylla supposed (ib. pand equé: answ

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The gender may be due to the sense intended, as in the mas of Catullus 56. 7 or the hase of Petronius 24 fin.

Professor Lindsay, whose attention I drew to this gloss, thinks it may be a contamination

be as well to say plainly at the outset that, if the original quantity had been abis, aris, paris, there is not the slightest reason why that quantity should have been changed. The poorest writer of dactylics would have had no difficulty in finding them a place in his verse.

Since M. Havet published his paper on L'S latin caduc in the Études romanes dedicated to Gaston Paris, pp. 303 sqq., it has been generally recognized that in Early Latin the s which arose from the concurrence of two final consonants, as ts, ds, ss, had a different value from the simple s shown by the occasional length of the last syllable, as in 'miles inpransus' Aul. 528, the beginning of an iambic trimeter and es from sum' which always forms a long syllable in Plautus, and the fact that in this case the consonant is never suppressed at the end of a word like an originally single s as in bonu' sum (ib. pp. 320 sq.). This double s was soon simplified first before consonants and later before vowels and the stages may be marked as follows: equěts, equěs, equěs. Why did not abies, ariess, pariess take the same route? The answer seems to be that they were attracted to the numerous words with similar ending and scansion such as actés, fâctés, spēcies, in which the e of the last syllable was long.

2. abiīt, adiīt, coiīt, iniīt, obiīt, periīt, rediīt, subiīt; petiīt.

To the shortening of final syllables closed by any consonant but s which had been consummated by the classical period, the anapaestic perfects cited above are a sole and singular exception. Actual proof of the length of the vowel cannot be produced for coiit, iniit and obiit as these do not happen to occur before an initial vowel in verse; but it would be perverse to maintain that they were in disaccord with the other compounds of iit. We should add interit and praeterit, compounds ending in an anapaest, for both of which we have the authority of Ovid: Met. 3, 546, Ars Am. 3, 63, 64, Met. 14, 101.

In sharp contrast to these stand perfects in which the preposition is long and the final syllable short: to wit exist, and trānsist to which but for the deficiencies of the record prōdist would presumably be added. Lachmann, whose note on Lucr. 3. 1042 is for all its arbitrary theorizing still indispensable, would not tolerate either exist or sit being of a quantity different from abist, just as he refused to Lucretius the liberty of placing the contracted obit before a consonant, although in the very same note he cites five examples (Manilius and Martial) of desst, the contraction of dessit, which is never found except in this position. Lachmann imposed upon L. Mueller, de re metrica p. 399; but he did not impose on Munro (Lucr. l.c.), who writes of Lachmann's attempts to foist exit and transit upon Vergil: 'Taking then into account the poet's usual rhythm it seems almost incredible that he should five times have written éxit, éxit, tránsit, tránsit, tránsit, tránsit [G. 2. 81, A. 2. 497 'non sic aggeribus ruptis cum spumeus amnis | exiit, oppositasque euicit gurgite moles | fertur in

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For the form sss compare Mr. A. W. Hodgman's collection in Classical Quarterly I. 1907,

arua furens cumulo; A. 5. 274, 10. 785, 817 'transiit et parmam mucro, leuia arma minacis']; 'never once divided the word between two feet, exit, etc.; nor used it in the sixth foot.' Lachmann's treatment of Silius 13. 166 and Tibullus 1. 4. 27 is hardly less perverse. In the first passage 'mediam tunc transiit ictu | parmam sed grato fraudatast sanguine cuspis' he rejects transiit, supported though it is by the Vergilian parallel and another from Silius himself 10. 251 sq. 'conixus in hastam | ilia cornipedis subrecta cuspide transit' and vouched for by the Coloniensis, for the facile transigit of inferior MSS. The passage of Tibullus I dealt with in connexion with Horace carm. 4. 4. 65 'merses profundo pulcrior euenit,' where for the corrupt euenit I suggested 1 exist which would account both for it and the exist of some inferior MSS. The hexameter of the distich 'at si tardus eris, errabis; transiet aetas | quam cito! non segnis stat remeatque (-ue) dies,' in addition to a rare and here a seemingly motiveless lengthening, presents a form of the future without warrant or parallel in classical Latinity. But Lachmann sooner than accept the transitt of the 'deteriores' has thrust a solecism 2 upon Tibullus a hundred and fifty years at least before its time, and a solecism moreover which appears as a corruption in one of the passages Aen. 10. 785 [transiit PR, transiet (with e corrected to i) M] that he cites himself. Sommer's acceptance of his predecessor's error 3 may perhaps serve as an excuse for dealing with a reading and a form so generally discredited. The instances alleged by Neue-Wagener Formenlehre 3. 326 sq. have disappeared from our texts, and the rediet which Haupt foisted on Germanicus Phaen. 716 has gone the way of exiet in Seneca Epist. 17. 9, 113. 20, Apoc. 3. 1, of iniet in Benef. 2. 1. 2 and transiet in N.Q. 3. 10. 3.

As to the quantity of the perfect the facts are clear and easily stated. While in *abiit* and its like there is abundant evidence of the scansion  $\circ \circ \circ$  and none of the scansion  $\circ \circ \circ$ , in the case of *exiit* and its like there is none of the scansion  $\circ \circ \circ$  and plenty of the scansion  $\circ \circ \circ$ .

The anomaly which nonplussed L. Mueller 'huius usus satis mirifici' p. 399 is no longer a mystery. The so-called 'law of iambic shortening' which made scið and modð from scið and modð produced itt out of itt (Ter. Phorm. 706, Verg. Aen. 9. 418, Val. Fl. 6. 685). äbbit stands in the same relation to itt as rëputë does to putð or älibi to ibi and extit in the same relation to itt as nesció does to scið or sīcūbi to übi.

A word in conclusion as to the -1. The perfect it (itt) has been discussed by Sommer Handbuch pp. 566 sq. and Kritische Erlaüterungen p. 166. It seems clear that the 1 arises from a diphthong; and the Sanskrit perfect (1 sing.) iy-ay-a, quoted from Brugmann's discussion, offers an instructive

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Transactions of the Cambridge Philological Society, vol. 3, p. 178 (1890).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Pompei commentum artis Donati (Gramm. Lat. V. 225 Keil) 'si autem i non habeat ante o sed s habeat, futurum tempus in -bo mittit, exeo, exibo; exiam non diciemus; soloccismus est,'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Handbuch, p. 537, 'das entsprechende Futurum hat schon Tibull. I. 4, 27 einmal unter dem Zwang des Metrums gebildet.' The 'stress of metre' then stopped Tibullus from using trassibit in a hexameter; but Propertius (2. II. 5) was presumably more fortunate.

parallel. The ei appears then to have been preserved in redieit C.I.L. I. 541 and Plautus Merc. 530 in the Ambrosianus, and iit will have come from ijeit.'1

3. Anien : lien, rien.

An undisputed rule of Classical Latin quantity is that a native word ending in unaccented en has the e of its ultimate short whatever the original quantity. Thus flamen masc. and neut., pecten masc., in contrast to attagen ἀπταγήν, Siren, rên, splên. To this rule Anien and lien alone are said to constitute exceptions.<sup>2</sup>

Aniën, an old variant of  $Ani\bar{o}^3$  (a Latin name according to Conway *Italian Dialects* 334), is proved not only by the analogy of the other cases, but by the actual scansion in Statius Silu. I. 5. 25.

lien. Some four hundred years after the first appearance of lien in literature a long en is found in its stem. Serenus Sammonicus Liber Medicinalis 414 'nonnulli memorant consumi posse liënem,' ib. 425 'dulcia Plautus ait grandi minus apta liëni;' the nominative which may be presumed to have the same quantity occurs in v. 402 'quando lien tumido circumligat ilia uinclo.' The earlier medical writer Celsus uses the word frequently, but there is no clue to its quantity unless his nominative lienis (see below) be supposed to be such.

We must now go back to Plautus, the examples from whom I will now transcribe:

sed quid tibi est? CA. lien enicat, renes dolent Curc. 236.

perii. seditionem facit lien, occupat praecordia

Merc. 124 (Iamb. Octonarius).
lien dierectust. PA. ambula, id lieni optimumst

Curc. 244.

nam iam quasi sona liene cinctus ambulo

(the source of Sammonicus 402 l.c. above)

perii. cor lienosum, opinor, habeo. iam dudum salit

Cas. 414 (Troch. Septenarius).

Unfortunately we have lost the passage to which Sammonicus refers in 425.

1 ei for later i is well attested in this for early Latin; cf. Lindsay Latin Language p. 456 and A. W. Hodgman Classical Quarterly I. p. 122, who says there are thirty-three instances in Plantus.

<sup>2</sup> The nominative of Nerienem given as the name of the wife of Mars, Gellius Noct. Att. 3. 32 (32) with the passages there cited, including Plaut. Truc. 515, is not known for certain, Gellius suggesting 'Nerio' or 'Nerienes.' But as the balance of authority is clearly in favour of the quantity Nérièmem or Nérièmem, not for the

Norienem which a number of scholars adopt, the word does not in any case help us here.

\* Its Latin origin is doubted by some on the ground that the inflexion -6, -ësis postulates an Ablaut without example in Indo-European, Sommer op. cit. p. 360 with the references given there. The original declension seems to have been Asiō, Asiōnis, but Asien is as old as Cato, and it is clear from the examples in the Thissawrs s.u. that both forms were in use. A later inflexion was Asiō, Asiōnis after the normal pattern of lagio, lagionis.

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Consonantization or absorption of the *i* in *lien* being out of the question, the word must in all these places be a disyllable, and careful consideration of them without respect to the later scansion of the word irresistibly suggests that in the time of Plautus the *e* of at least its stem and oblique cases was short: *liëni*, *liëne*, *liënosum*. It is possible that Martianus Capella, 3. 296, was aware of this quantity as, after speaking of 'masculina ut *flamen pecten*,' communia duobus generibus ut *tibicen fidicen*,' neutra ut nomen flumen,' he goes on 'altera species est generis masculini quae E litteram ante extremam N seruat ut *lien rien*, quae tamen ipsa quoque in ceteris ut superiora declinantur.' For if the quantity of the vowel is different, the only point of resemblance 'in ceteris' is the n.

If the stem lien- was short in the time of Plautus, it must have changed its quantity by the time of Sammonicus. Can we discern a reason for the change? I think we can. The close associations of lienes with rēnes (cf. Curc. 236 supra) and of lien with splēn seem sufficient for the purpose. The existence of rien, a bye-form of ren, is particularly significant; see Festus p. 277a 'rienes antiqui uocabant nefrundines quia Graeci eos νεφρούς dicunt;' Plautus 'glaber erat tamquam rien.' And Charisius, Gramm. Lat. I. 28. 13 Keil and elsewhere, Marius Plotius Sacerdos, ib. VI. 474. 10 Probus Catholica, ib. IV. 9. 7, and Priscian II. 149. 7, all couple lien and rien.

To pass to the nominative, lièn in Plautus would involve less of a strain on the 'iambic shortening law' than lièn; and a liènis in Celsus would have the countenance of iuuënis instead of the splendid isolation of liènis.

rien. The quantity of the nominative singular ren may be considered established though it does not occur in literature; the plural rēnes has already been quoted from Plautus, and Horace has rēnes and Grattius rēnibus. For rien, rienis there is nothing so tangible. The indications both as regards its relations to ren and its correspondences to lien are ambiguous or conflicting; and the cognates of both words are unknown.<sup>3</sup>

Before we can complete our investigation, we must consider our two words in relation to other masculines with stems ending in -n, premising only that the appearance of e after i is due to the arresting force of dissimilation, such as we find in pietas, uarietas and so forth by the side of castitas, cupiditas and the like. The confusion of these stems in Latin, contrasting sharply with the distinctness of Greek (- $\omega\nu$ , - $\omega\nu\sigma\varsigma$ ; - $\omega\nu$ , - $\nu\sigma\varsigma$ ; - $\nu\nu$ , - $\nu\sigma$ 

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With this would agree the Sanskrit ρūλαπ-(ρliλαπ-), the only one of its Indo-European congeners that stands very near to it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The stem of this word, as the gen. plur. innerum (Ennius) and the cognates innerum, innerum of the cognates innerum. The singular appears to be later than the plural, the nominative first appearing in Catullus, 64.58 (Sommer op. cit. p. 370). The word and its relations to senex, senis have been discussed by Brugmann Archiv 15. pp. 1 sqq. He considers

that the s was preserved through its associations with sease (these are we may observe especially strong in the plural where isumes, earlier isuniorss, and sease, earlier seniorss, is a standing military distinction). But inasmuch as set and a nasal is not found in Latin except where the i is original as in winco, wincio, neither isusenis nor isusencus stand in need of apology.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Walde Lateinisches etymologisches Wörterbuch s.u. ren. He says 'Formell ist Kreuzung mit Lien zu erwägen.'

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preceded) and the sweeping of an analogical of through territory in which it had no original rights. hemő (homő), G. hemônis, hominis may serve as our example. Speaking broadly, the flexion redistributed itself on two lines, (a)- o, -onis after a vowel legio, legionis, (b) -o, -inis after a consonant ordo, ordinis; and the declension -n, -nis all but disappeared. There remained however the following; flamen (cf. Greek ποι-μήν), pecten (cf. κτείς, κτενός), termen, turben, and the compounds in -cen as tibi-cen. It is moreover not improbable that we should add, for an earlier period, sanguen (cf. sanguinem) and inguen (= Greek ἀδήν m.). these having changed their gender through the attraction of unguen and the numerous other neuters in -en. termen and turben have a special interest for us. termen, Varro L.L. 5. 21 (speaking of terminus) 'in Latio aliquot locis dicitur ut apud Accium, non "terminus" sed termen, hoc Graeci quod τέρμονα, pote uel illinc. Euander enim qui uenit in Palatium e Graecia Arcas,' had a rival in termo, Festus p. 263 'termonem Ennius Graeca consuetudine dixit quem nos nunc terminum hoc modo "ingenti uadit cursu qua redditus termo est" et "hortatore bono prius quem finibus termo," a passage which has been curiously misunderstood. It does not show that Ennius used termonem for the accusative of termo, nor that Festus found this form in his works. termonem is the inflexion of Festus; and I imagine that by his 'hoc modo' the grammarian is guarding himself against the misapprehension that the accusative is anything more than the grammatical device by which words that in our non-inflexional writing would be placed between inverted commas are in Latin made to conform to the syntactical requirements of the sentence. Proof of this is surely not needed; but, as an example, 'uox uoluptatis' (Cicero) does not mean 'the voice of pleasure' but 'the word pleasure.' There is then nothing here against the hypothesis that Ennius inflected termen terminis, as he would inflect flamen flaminis. terminus, the predominant form, bears the same relation to the masculine termen as glutinum (Scaurus and Sallust) does to the neuter gluten. As to turben which has been preserved to Tibullus 1. 5. 3 'namque agor ut per plana citus sola uerbere turben' (MSS. turbo) by the witness of Charisius, I cannot understand why Professor Buck should call it, Classical Philology 12 (1917), p. 27 n. 4, a 'late and obviously secondary' formation. By the time of Tibullus -o had established itself as the masculine and feminine nominative and -en as the neuter nominative for nouns whose genitive ended with -inis. Why should a formation after an ordinary type of masculines have been remodelled on another that had almost become extinct? And if it was on the neuters that it was remodelled, why did it cling to its gender?

The doublet pollis and pollen we know from the grammarians, who had access to much that has now disappeared. It is clear, if only from the acc. pollinem (Cato Terence), that it was either a masculine or a feminine noun; and as some report it as feminine others as masculine and others again as neuter, cf. Priscian 6. 12. 66 (II. 250. 17 Keil) 'haec pollis pollinis¹ sic

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is worth noting that according to Marius there were no Latin feminine substantives that Plotius Sacerdos (Gramm. Lat. V. 474. 25 Keil) ended in -s.

Charisius; Probus autem et Caesar<sup>1</sup> hoc pollen pollinis declinauerunt,' while Phocas says 'hic cinis cineris, hic pollis pollinis, hic pubis puberis,' Gramm. Lat. (Keil) V. 418. 10, it would seem that here too we have a masculine -en which has been attracted by the neuters in -en.

To the doublet pollis pollen the doublet sanguis sanguen appears to be a close parallel; and since the i of sanguis for sanguin-s was originally long, it is a plausible assumption that the i of pollis for pollin-s was long too. Taking these two words by themselves it would seem probable that when the ending en had become predominately neuter and proportion required a masculine nominative for the accusatives pollinem, sanguinem a new one was formed by means of the suffix s while the old nominatives pollen sanguen went over to the neuters. In the case of sanguis still further irregularities were caused through its entanglement with anguis, which produced on the one side the shortened sanguis and the compound exsanguis and on the other side anguen, anguineus, this latter a later form for the correct angu-inus.

'Mais revenons à nos moutons.' It will not have escaped an attentive reader's notice that the words in the three foregoing groups have certain features in common. They all form exceptions to a well-known rule of Latin sound-lore, that final syllables closed by a consonant are short; and in all the penultimate vowel is i, and this i is followed by a long e or a diphthong whose first element is e. If the final syllable of lien and rien be  $-\bar{e}n$ , there is no further bond in the group as a whole; but its remaining members show yet another similarity. They either constitute or conclude with an anapaest.

It is tempting to speak of a Law of the Anapaest. But at present I will refrain.

J. P. POSTGATE.

LIVERPOOL, June 13, 1917.

1 In his treatise De Analogia.

NOTES ON SENECA EPISTVLAE MORALES.

Seneca: Epp. Mor. 15 § 9 detraxi tibi non pusillum negotii: una mercedula et unum Graecum ad haec beneficia accedet: ecce insigne praeceptum....

Unum Graecum, as Professor Summers says (Cl.Q. II. 25), is impossible. In all probability Graecum is a gloss on a Greek word. Professor Tucker (Cl.Q. VII. 55) has proposed ἐπώνιον. It is true that Seneca does not hesitate to use Greek words which had become current among Romans; see Professor Summers's list on p. 4. of his Select Letters of Seneca and compare 95 § 65 ' his adicit causarum inquisitionem, aetiologian quam quare nos dicere non audeamus, cum grammatici, custodes Latini sermonis, suo iure ita appellent, non uideo.' Still he never uses Greek words without necessity in the way that Cicero does in his letters to Atticus, and he even avoids so common a word as åσθμα on the ground that it has a Latin equivalent (54 § 1). It is therefore very unlikely that he would have used such a word as ἐπώνιον here. Before seeing Professor Tucker's emendation I had thought of xenium, and I still think this more probable ('suos rex reginae placet'). Xenium, at least in the plural, was in common use in the time of Martial and Pliny the Younger, and may very well have been a common colloquial word in Seneca's time. As for unum, I take it that una was accidentally repeated by a copyist and assimilated to xenium. I would suggest therefore 'una mercedula et xenium ad haec beneficia accedet.' For the construction cf. 8 § 3 'et fera et piscis . . . . decipitur. Una, which Professor Summers suspects (Cl.Q. II. 25), is perfectly sound. Seneca means that this time he will pay his debts by one quotation only (cf. 8 § 9 'unum uersum . . . referam'). Against Professor Summers's emendations it should be noted that mercedula must refer forward and not backward, for the metaphor of payment is not used of any benefit conferred by these letters on Lucilius, but only of the quotations, cf. 6 § 7 'quoniam diurnam tibi mercedulam debeo.' Like Professor Tucker, I suspect idem qui supra. I should conjecture that Seneca's answer contained the names of Epicurus and one of his friends and that this was a gloss on the friend's name, meaning that he is the same person who is mentioned in a previous epistle.

29 § 2 spargenda manus est.

Perhaps we should read 'spargenda manu semina. Cf. De Ben. 1. 1 § 2 'semina in solum effetum et sterile non spargimus.' If -mina were lost, manu -se would easily become manus ē.

¹ Cf. Vitruu. 6. 7 § 4 'ideo pictores ea quae appellauerunt.' mittebantur hospitibus picturis imitantes xenia

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33 § 9 'multum' inquit 'uiua uox facit.' non quidem haec quae alienis uerbis commodatur et actuari uice fungitur.

According to Forcellini, K. E. Georges, Lewis and Short, and the Thesaurus Linguae Latinae, actuarius here means a shorthand-writer, as in Suet. Iul. 55. Forcellini explains the passage thus: 'h. e. tantummodo ab aliis dicta profert, nihil de suo addit: quemadmodum actuarius scribit ab aliis dictata.' But this would not be a very apt illustration of 'haec \( \square \) quae. . . .' The true explanation is suggested by Forcellini's general account of the word. Actuarius, he says, is 'ὑπομνηματογράφος, . . . qui acta perscribit.' The clerk who took down the proceedings of the Senate (acta senatus) would doubtless also be called on to read them, as with us the secretary who takes the minutes at one meeting reads them at the next. Hence actuarius = is qui acta recitat. Cf. Iuu. 7. 104 'quis dabit historico quantum daret acta legenti?' The scholium there is 'quantum datur exceptori' (i.e. to a shorthand-writer, cf. Suet. Iul. 55 'ab actuariis exceptam [sc. orationem] male subsequentibus uerba dicentis'). Friedländer says this explanation is wrong, and, like Mr. Duff, thinks Juvenal means the slave who read the acta diurna to his master. Mayor says he means 'the actuarius who copied out the acta < diurna > and read them aloud to amuse the company at table.' But why should a man give anything to his own slave for doing his ordinary work? The scholium may very well be correct; if so, Juvenal is referring to the clerks of the Senate. But daret is still a difficulty, and one may perhaps conjecture, following the scholium, that Juvenal wrote 'quantum datur acta legenti (" who will pay a historian a sum equal to the salary of the clerk who reads the minutes in the Senate?")'. For our purpose the decisive passage is Petronius 53 'actuarius, qui tamquam urbis acta recitauit.' Actuarius then means here and in Petronius one who reads acta, whether, as in Petronius, a slave so called because he read the acta diurna to his master,1 or the Clerk of the House, who took down the proceedings of the Senate (acta senatus) and read the minutes at the next meeting. Lewis and Short derive the word from the noun actus; and the Thesaurus derives actuarius in all senses from actus; but as used in Petronius, Seneca, and Suetonius, ll. cc., it is obviously derived from act-a, like not-arius from not-ae, libr-arius from libr-i, tabell-arius from tabell-ae. Hence one would expect actarius, the form found in glossaries and inscriptions. The form actuarius, though found in manuscripts at the places cited, must be a barbarism, and could hardly have been used by Seneca. Nettleship, Contributions to Latin Lexicogoaphy, s.v. actarius, says: 'Velius Longus, p. 74, says a distinction was drawn between actarius and actuarius: actarius being scriptor actorum, actuarius qui actum agit or (p. 155) qui diuersis actibus occupatur,' and s.v. actuarius he says: 'Actuarius is given as = actarius (q.v.) by the MSS. of Petron. 53. 1; Sen. Ep. 33.9; Suet. Iul. 55: but the distinction quoted by Velius Longus seems to be correct.' We

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> K. E. Georges's explanation—'ein Rechnungsführer, Buchhalter'— and Lewis and gether erroneous.

should therefore read actarius in Seneca, Petronius, and Suetonius, U. cc., in spite of the Thesaurus Linguae Latinae.

40 § 1. si imagines nobis amicorum absentium iucundae sunt, quae memoriam renouant et desiderium absentiae falso atque inani solacio leuant.

Delete absentiae. absentium iucundae in the line before became absentiae iucundae in some copy, just as in this line p has desideriae absentiae. This absentiae was written as a marginal variant in the archetype of p and L and thence inserted in the wrong place.

40 § 2. solet magno cursu uerba conuellere, quae non effundit ima (una codd. dett.), sed premit ut urguet. plura enim ueniunt quam quibus uox una sufficiat.

Delete *ima*; it probably originated as a variant of *una* in the next line and, like *absentiae* above, was inserted in the wrong place. Or it may have been an unconscious anticipation of *una* by a copyist, like the first *quidem* in 41 § 5, . . . ut propius [quidem] diuina nossemus, conuersatur quidem nobiscum. . . . Professor Summers's conjecture *unda* cannot be right. It is not required either as subject or as instrumental ablative.

40 § 9. et ipse malueris, si necesse est, uel P. Vinicium dicere. qui itaque? cum quaereretur quomodo P. Vinicius diceret, Asellius ait 'tractim.'

Professor Summers (Cl.Q. II. 28) objects to qui itaque (1) that it is unnecessary, (2) that the interrogative adverb qui does not occur elsewhere in Seneca. With regard to (1) something is required to connect the sentences, for cum quaereretur alone would not do this. In 29 § 6 'de cuius secta cum quaereretur, Scaurus ait . . .,' which he quotes, there is the relative cuius to connect the sentences. His emendation assumes a large number of separate corruptions and leaves an awkward asyndeton. But qui itaque? is very strange, for itaque could hardly have a meaning in such a question. I would suggest that something has been lost through homoeoteleuton, e.g. 'et ipse malueris, si necesse est, ut P. Vinicius dicere, qui ita lentus erat ut uolgo mirarentur posse quemquam tam tarde loqui. itaque, cum. . . '

40 § 10. 'dic, numquam dicas?'

Professor Summers's conjecture would, I think, require 'hoc numquam a me audias.' Professor Tucker's 'dic, numquid manducas?' is far more probable. One might also suggest 'dic, numquid dictas?' ('I say, are you dictating something?') For the indicative see Roby § 1761 and Gildersleeve and Lodge § 467 note.

42 § 4. eadem uelle subaudis (in fine uersus) cognosces: da posse, quantum uolunt † (si sub auditis cognoscis L).

Buecheler's emendation—'eadem uelle, si iuuat audentis, cognosces'—is very remote from the MSS. and does not account for the corruption; also it

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Suet. We makes 'da posse, quantum uolunt' otiose. Subaudis and si sub auditis must be corruptions of an interlinear gloss subaudi si on cognosces or else on da, i.e. 'da posse is equivalent to si dabis posse.' If we delete subaudis, the sentence will be perfectly grammatical; but the da-clause should come first, for in this equivalent for a conditional sentence the imperative always precedes the future indicative. Read therefore 'da posse, quantum uolunt: eadem uelle cognosces.' [In Th. de Juges's variorum edition, Orleans, 1628, 'eadem uelle eos cognosces: da posse, quantum uolunt' is printed with no note or mention of any variant reading.]

47 § 10. Variana clade.

In his note on this passage Professor Summers says: 'We do not, I think, hear elsewhere of any of the prisoners having been spared.' He has forgotten Tacitus Ann. 1. 61 § 6 'et cladis eius superstites, pugnam aut uincula elapsi' and 12. 27 § 4 'aucta laetitia quod quosdam e clade Variana quadragesimum post annum seruitio exemerant.'

76 § 5. perge, Lucili, et propera, tibi nec tibi accidat quod mihi, ut senex discas. immo ideo magis propera, quoniam id non aggressus es quod perdiscere uix senex possis.

The simplest correction of tibi nec tibi is to delete the first tibi, regarding it as a copyist's accidental anticipation. Propera, nec tibi accidat . . . will mean 'hasten, and do not let it be your fate, as it is mine, to go to school in your old age.' Nec is normal when a negative jussive subjunctive is added to an imperative (see Kühner<sup>2</sup>, II. I. 192-3).

Non is obviously wrong, but it seems very unlikely that negotium would have become non, as Professor Summers supposes. More probably non has got into the text from a marginal  $\cdot N = nota$ , i.e. an N.B. calling attention to the sentiment. (Compare Seneca's own practice,  $6 \S 5$  'mittam itaque ipsos tibi libros et . . . imponam notas, ut ad ipsa protinus, quae probo et miror accedas.') In 71  $\S$  19 non  $(\overline{n}\ V)$  is also wrongly inserted in the MSS.

78 § 21. si nihil exorauerit.

An odd use of exoro. One would expect exoraueris.

80 § 1. licebit uno uadere.

The meaning evidently is that he will be able to go on with his thinking uninterruptedly. Professor Summers is undoubtedly right in holding that a noun has been lost after uno, but his actu seems an unlikely word. Professor Tucker proposed tono. But tonus does not occur in any sense that will suit the context. Tenore seems to be the word required. Cf. de Otio I § I 'tunc potest uita aequali et uno tenore procedere.'

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82 § 24. magnis telis magna portenta feriuntur. serpentem illam in Africa saeuam et Romanis legionibus bello ipso terribiliorem frustra sagittis fundisque petierunt. ne pythio quidem uulnerabilis erat, cum ingens magnitudo pro uastitate corporis solida ferrum et quicquid humanae torserant manus reiceret: molaribus demum fracta saxis est.

pithio V pithyo P pilo uel pilis Erasmus.

The readings of VP point to pithio. This cannot be right, for (1) the word does not occur elsewhere as a name of an engine of war, (2) 'quicquid humanae torserant manus' would be more appropriate of weapons thrown by hand than of missiles hurled from a ballista, (3) there is an ascending order—(i.) 'sagittis fundisque,' (ii.) 'pythio,' (iii.) 'molaribus saxis.' If pythio=ballista, as Buecheler suggested, this ascending scale is destroyed and the climax molaribus saxis anticipated, for the ballista hurled stones, sometimes a hundred pounds in weight. Now when the arrows and sling-stones of the light infantry had no effect, what would be the next weapon tried?—The pilum of the legionaries. Then we get (i.) arrows and sling-stones, (ii.) iron-pointed javelins thrown by hand, cf. 'ferrum et quicquid humanae torserant manus, (iii.) big stones hurled by a ballista. Therefore Erasmus's pilis should be adopted. The plural is required to match the other plurals. The corruption pythio probably arose from some marginal note about the Python slain by Apollo at Delphi. [I find that Lipsius defended pilo by the argument 'crescit oratio.']

86 § 10. sed, di boni, quam iuuat illa balinea intrare obscura et gregali tectorio inducta, quae scires Catonem tibi aedilem aut Fabium Maximum aut ex Corneliis aliquem manu sua temperasse!

The combination of tenses in 'quam inuat . . . quae scires . . .' is impossible, for it is nonsense to say 'quam inuat illa balinea intrare, quae scires Catonem tibi . . . temperasse.' Read quam inuaret . . . ('What a pleasure it would have been to enter a bath which you knew . . .').

87 § 9. hic, qui inter illos apparatus delicatos cum maxime dubitat utrum se ad gladium locet an ad cultrum.

Gladium is of course the gladiator's sword, cf. Cic. pro Sex. Roscio § 118 'num aut ille lanista omnino iam a gladio recessisse uidetur? . . . . Of cultrum two explanations have been offered: (1) The Thesaurus Linguae Latinae, s.v. culter, has 'culter . . . i. q. pugio uel gladius breuis. . . . Sen. Contr. exc. 6, 5 quidam Thracum cultris armati. Sen. Epist. 87, 9 dubitat, utrum se ad gladium locet an ad cultrum (i. ad officium gladiatoris, cf. Scrib. Larg. 13 occidi hinnulum cultro, quo gladiator iugulatus sit). . . . It is not clear how the writer proposes to distinguish between ad gladium and ad cultrum. If he thinks ad gladium means 'to serve as a soldier' and ad cultrum 'to fight as a gladiator,' he is clearly wrong, for, apart from other considerations, there is no evidence that culter was a technical name for any gladiatorial weapon. If he thinks ad cultrum means 'to fight as a Thraex,' he is equally mistaken. In Sen. Rhet. l.c. the MSS. have 'Thracum cultu'; cultris is only a suggestion of A. Kiessling. Thracum there means natives of

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Thrace. Moreover, the offensive weapon of the Thraex was the sica, see Daremberg and Saglio, s.v. gladiator, II. 1587, Friedländer, SG. II8. 539, cf. Mart. 3. 16. 2. The writer of the article in the Thesaurus must have been unusually careless, for he gives Varro R.R. 2. 5. II 'paulo uerbosius haec, qui Manilii actiones secuntur lanii, qui ad cultrum bouem emunt : qui ad altaria, hostiae sanitatem non solent stipulari' (he does not quote the passage in full) as an instance of culter in the sense of a sacrificial knife, though the antithesis of ad cultrum and ad altaria shows that it must mean a butcher's knife (see Daremberg and Saglio, s.v. culter, I. 1585). (2) Muretus, Lipsius, Daremberg and Saglio, s.v. culter, I. 1586, Friedländer, SG. II8. 393-4, 544-5, and Professor Summers take cultrum to be the hunting-knife used in the uenationes, cf. Mart. 4. 35. 4 'stupuitque superbus | uenator cultro nil superesse suo.' Culter is used of so many different kinds of knives that its precise meaning can be determined only by the context. Here se ad gladium locet at once turns our thoughts to the harena and hence serves to limit cultrum to the weapon of the uenator. Also it is known that men did hire themselves out as uenatores, see Friedländer's quotation from Ulpian: 'et qui operas suas ut cum bestiis depugnaret locauerit.' Hence there can be little doubt that by cultrum is meant the culter uenatorius.

88 § 9 doces me quomodo inter se acutae ac graues <uces> consonent . . . fac potius quomodo animus secum meus consonet. . .

I do not see how fac quomodo is to be translated. 'Cause my soul to be harmonious' would be 'fac potius ut...' Moreover, the antitheses which follow in §§ 9-11 show that the antithesis should be between what is taught and what should be taught. 'Fac potius <discam> quomodo ...' or 'fac potius <doceas> quomodo ...' seems to be necessary.

R. L. DUNBABIN.

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# THE AFFATIM GLOSSARY AND OTHERS.

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BABIN.

THE bilingual Philoxenus Glossary drew some of its materials from Festus de Signif. Verb. and occasionally mentions his name. Its Festus glosses have been collected in a Jena dissertation by Dammann. The Abolita Glossary (if we may so term the collection enclosed within square brackets in Corp. Gloss. Lat. IV. pp. 4-198) seems to have begun (in its original arrangement) with Festus excerpts. Before we can glean from these two glossaries every available scrap of evidence about Festus, we must try to complete and correct them. For of the Philoxenus Glossary (Philox.) we have practically only one MS., and that of the ninth century. It must have omitted many items and perverted the words of many others. The Abolita Glossary (Abol.) was associated (but not mixed up) with another, the Abstrusa Glossary (Abstr.), in Spain, and this composite collection (Abstr.-Abol.) passed into Italy. The MSS. are, we may say, only two, and of each a certain number of leaves are missing. The older and better MS. (Vat.), an uncial codex of the eighth century, was written apparently in Central Italy; the other (Cass.) was written two centuries later at Monte Cassino. They show us Abol. not in its original form, but rearranged in a not too strict alphabetical order (between AB- and ABC-). The St. Gall Glossary was compiled from (1) Philox., (2) the composite Abstr.-Abol., and supplies some of those Festus glosses of Philox. and Abol. which are omitted in our MSS. It seems to have been a Bobbio compilation (but see below). Our best MS. was written in rude uncials at St. Gall in the eighth

This St. Gall Glossary (Sangall.) is of a type which prevailed from t'.e Carolingian Revival of Learning, the extract-glossary; for it offers us not Philox. and Abstr.-Abol. fully transcribed, but merely selections from the pair. The compiler selects now an item from one, now an item from the other, and often blends his two authorities into a composite item or re-casts the words of the one to suit the words of the other. It is a practice which is easily explained, especially in the earlier Carolingian period. A glossary was a book indispensable at a monastery. It could not be lent to another cloister, at least not for any long time. In most cases a visitor would be the transcriber, and the amount he transcribed would depend on the length of his visit. The result of this practice has been to obscure the history of gloss-tradition. We find many glossaries which resemble each other more or less, but we cannot say which collection is derived from which, or how precisely they are related to a

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common ancestor. The nucleus seems the same or at least similar, but the

rest, the wrappings, different.

The nucleus common to most of the glossaries in Vol. IV. of the Corp. Gloss. Lat. (and to many in Vol. V.) is clearly Abstr., and in none more clearly than the glossary with which this article begins, the Affatim Glossary (Aff.). In pp. 471-581 Goetz provides an apograph of a Leyden MS. (67 F) written somewhere in the north of the Frankish Empire in Charlemagne's time, and an apparatus of the variant readings in other MSS. from the same archetype, the oldest of which is a Ghent codex of Charlemagne's time, now at Leyden (Voss. Fol. 26).

At first sight Aff. seems to be nothing more than a compilation from Abstr., the Abstr. items being re-arranged to suit the arrangement in Aff., which is more advanced in alphabetical precision than the order followed in Goetz' MSS. of Abstr. (see Loewe's Prodromus, p. 107, for details). I need not illustrate the connexion between the two. It is patent on every page, except on pp. 524 sqq. (of Corp. Gloss. Lat. IV.) where there is a marked break after the hi-glosses (see the HI-section of Abstr. on pp. 86-87 of the same volume). Clear traces of compilation from Abstr. do not reappear until certain in-glosses (corresponding to some in the IN-section of Abstr., on p. 98). The break was due to the loss of four leaves of an exemplar, a loss duly recorded by the compiler of Aff.: Hic habet minus (i.e. 'deest,' or rather 'desunt') inter H et I folia quattuor quae excisa fuerunt de exemplari (524, 45-46). Deprived of Abstr. for this portion, the compiler has given us a clearer view than we get elsewhere of his other source (or sources). We find batches of Virgil glosses which often retain their original order, the order of the words' occurrence in the text of Virgil: e.g. (p. 525) No. 41 Infandum (Aen. 1, 251); No. 42 Impar (Aen. 1, 475); No. 43 Iamdudum (? Aen. 1, 580); No. 44 In arce (Aen. 3, 531); No. 45 Infabricata (Aen. 4, 400); No. 46 Iam uertitur (Aen. 5, 626); No. 47 Iam ualidum minus (? Aen. 5, 716); No. 48 Imago (? Aen. 6, 695); and so on (cf. 527, 15 sqq.; 528, 39 sqq.; 530, 60 sqq.; 531, 21 sqq.). And we find many Abolita glosses.

Now a clue to the source of these non-Abstrusa items is furnished by an error of the archetype in the ca-words, the fusion of the two glosses Catax and Consentaneum (491, 35 Catax: claudus a coxa, Consentaneum: <conueniens, aptum>). Both are Abolita glosses. On foll. 119-128 of Leyden 67 F is a fragmentary transcript (A-F) of a glossary which must be a representative of the source we are seeking; for in it the gloss Catax is immediately followed by the gloss Consentaneum. From the details furnished by Loewe (Prodr. p. 171) we see that it consisted of Virgil glosses taken directly from the marginalia of a Virgil text (for Loewe mentions their use of hic 'in this passage') and of Abolita glosses. Where did these last come from? Must we infer that the (North Frankish?) compiler of this composite Virg.-Abol. collection (or at least of the Abolita portion of it) drew from a pure Abol. MS., in which Abol. was not associated with Abstr.? The inference is not unnatural, but cannot be called

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necessary. Pure Abstr. MSS. were common. In the composite Abstr.-Abol. MSS. of the early period the two constituents would be marked off. It would be easy for a compiler, whose monastery-library already contained a pure Abstr. MS., to limit his selection to the Abol. items.

Whether incorporated with Abstr. or not, so early a record of Abol. items must be a useful check on the imperfections of Vat. Here is a list of some items of Aff. which might make a claim to be Festus glosses (or on Early Latin words). Those found in Vat. or Sangall. and, of course, those known to be Abstrusa items (for there is no evidence that Abstr. drew from Festus) are omitted:

1. (471, 27) Atta: qui primis plantis ambulat. This looks like Philox. (378, 46 of Corp. Gloss. Lat. II.) Atta: ὁ ἄκροις τοῖς δακτύλοις ἐπιβαίνων (on this and the following Philox. glosses see Dammann). 2. (472, 10) Anatum (leg. Anctum?): miserum (leg. Anatem: miseriam?). 3. (472, 35) Applare: cocla (leg. cochlear? cotula?). There is a Philox. gloss (18, 32) Appia (leg. Applar?): είδος σκεύους, ώς Πακούβιος. 4. (472, 37) Abstlatata: navis piratica. Cf. Philox. 188, 50 Stlata: πειρατικοῦ σκάφους είδος. But there is rather a suggestion of Caper (Gram. Lat. VII. 107, 1) Stlataris sine C littera dicendum ab stlata naue piratica. And this intrudes a suspicion of the gloss Applare, whether it is not a mere wrong-headed transference from some grammarian's list of nouns in -are: applare, cochleare, etc. 5. (480, 38) Acinari (leg. Ag-?): tricari in paruo morari (a kindred glossary omits 'in paruo'). 6. (480, 50) Anticipassit: ante coeperit (cep-) uel prius prehenderit (found also, with the addition of 'ante fecerit', in the AA glossary, a South Italian compilation which made use of a good MS. of Abstr.-Abol. and has preserved many of the Festus glosses of Abol. omitted by Vat.) 7. (481, 22) Antiae: capilli a(nte) missi (? with a glossary's characteristic use of capricious suspension, on which see my Notae Latinae, p. 416. Goetz prints 'amissi'). 8. (481, 39) Armilustrium: quod armis locus lustretur. 9. (482, 14) Ancti: excruciati. 10. (485, 49) Actus: spatium agri CXX. pedes. 11. (485, 52) Augur: qui per auspicia diuinabat. 12. (486, 26) Amussis: regula fabri ae qualis qua tabulae diriguntur (the correction is supplied by a kindred glossary). 13. (486, 27) Auentibus: aud[i]entibus. There is an Abolita gloss (23, 29) Auentes: cupientes uel gaudentes. It suits Paul. 13, 17 Auere nihil aliud est quam cupere . . . cum significet et gaudere. The Affatim gloss suggests the (doubtful) emendation in Abol. 'audentes' and in Paul. 'audere.' 14. (487, 36-37) Bardus: hebes, stultus, ineptus, Bardus: carminum conditor. 15. (488, 11) Bacario: urceoli genus (Bec- in Aff., Bag- in a kindred glossary, etc.) There is another gloss (487, 41) Bacarium: uas aquarium. There seems to have been a Sangall. gloss combining the two (IV. 585, 24). 16. (488, 12) Blenni: taetri. A kindred glossary offers as the interpretation 'putidi, taetri.' There is an Abstrusa gloss (25, 3) Blennones: putidi, hircosi. 17. (489, 8) Bidental: locus [bis] de caelo tactus (a kindred glossary omits ' bis '). 18. (489, 28) Boues lucas: elephantes (-tos); quorum stridor barritus dicitur. Combining this with Sangall. 212, 38, we get a hint that Festus in the lemma Barrire (Paul. 27) mentioned this old name of the elephant. 19. (494, 35) Clepere: deripere (subr-), furare. This is probably the Abolita gloss (33, 23) Clepit: subripit. 20. (496, 25) Comitiare: loqui in conuentu. 21. (497, 2) Contio: conuentus populi uel conuocatio. Cf. Paul. 58 Contio, conuentus; dicta quasi conuocatio (by which Paulus would mean 'like conventus but with the same suffix as conuocatio'). There is one Abstrusa gloss (35, 35) Contio: conuocatio populi; another (44, 5) Contio: populi multitudo. Sangall. offers (222, 9) Contio: conventus populi. But the kindred glossary already mentioned has Contio: conuentio populi uel [ecclesia] conuentum (-tus). What Festus wrote was presumably: quasi conuentio. 22. (498, 4) Clopeum (Cop-): ornamentum. This has been connected with Paul. 85 (Galbeum, ornamenti genus) on the strength of the reading (misreading?) 'culpeum' in a glossary Vat. lat. 1468, written in S. E. Italy or Dalmatia as late as the eleventh century (see Loew, Beneventan Script, p. 152, p. 362). The connexion is doubtful. The Glossae Nominum, which drew from a fuller version of Philox., has (572, 18 of Vol. II.) Calbis: merces militi pro uirtute data (cf. Philox. 95, 43 Calbea: κόσμια). 23. (502, 4) Di aquili: manes inuidi (leg. inferi). The correct reading appears in the kindred glossary. 24. (502, 7) Dapsile: copiose. The kindred glossary adds 'abunde.' 25. (508, 24) Duit: tribuit <uel det>. The supplement comes from the kindred glossary; but the famous glossary of Corpus College, Cambridge (which offers Duit : det, tribuit), enables us to restore the true form, Duit: det, tribuat (the error having arisen from that common 'causa erroris' in glossaries, a capricious suspension, tribū for 'tribuat'). It may, with (508, 26) Duent: dent, tribuant (leg. Duint), be a Terence gloss of Abolita omitted in our MSS. And (508, 25) Duunt: dant, tribuunt (leg. Danunt) is that Festus (?) gloss of Abol. which appears in our MSS. as (58, 53) Dunt: dant, tribuunt. 26. (508, 46 and 49) Examussim: diligenter aut ex toto, Examussim: absolute siue certe. The kindred glossary has Examussim: absolute siue certe uel exquisite. There is an Abstrusa gloss (70, 4) Examussim: ex toto. 27. (516, 22) Facessit: facit uel recedit. 28. (518, 57) Fritinniunt: cantant. 29. (519, 12) Fiscella: forma ubi casei [exprimuntur. 30. (522, 24) Gaesum: hasta uel gladius. In the kindred glossary is the truer form, Gaesum: hasta uel iaculum Gallice. It may be a Virgil gloss. 31. (524, 30) Hippitare: oscitare, bataclare (French baîller, Italian sbadigliare). 32. (529, 32) Inpolitus: inputatus. The Sangall. gloss (246, 40 Inpolitus: ineruditus) may be the Abstrusa item (96, 43) Inpolitus: inperitus aut aspere inconpositus. 33. (529, 48) Inprolis: nondum uir. Cf. Victorinus (Gram. Lat. VI. 20, 9): qui nondum uir est. 34. (530, 1) Inpos: non potens animi. 35. (535, 45) Lurcones: auidi deuoratores. Cf. Nonius 10, 27 lurcare est cum auiditate cibum sumere. 36. (539, 31) Murrina: potio diuina, quae a Graecis nectar dicitur, de uino murrato ('id est uinum murratum' AA Glossary). We have a mere stump of this in Sangall. (257, 33) Murrina: potio diuina. 37. (551, 3) Petulcum: cornipeta uel petulans insiliendo sicut capra. 38. (557, 48-49) Procapis:

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proximus, Procapibus: proximis. 39. (557, 57) Polita: ornata. 40. (558, 58) Quadrantale: amphora. 41. (572, 43) Taureae plagae: nerui geni(talis). If that is the true form, it suggests Lucilius. 42. (575, 56) Tu[n]ditantes: uerberantes, saepius tundentes. 43. (578, 19) Vesperugo: stella uesperae. 44. (578, 24-25) Vescus: saturatus, cibos non appetens, Vescis: saturatis. The second may or may not be merely another attempt to transcribe the exemplar. 45. (516, 32 and 578, 40, two botanical glosses) Framen: herba unde fraua (leg. fraga?) nascuntur, Vemarum: herba. The full form of the second appears in the AA Glossary, Vemarum: herbae genus quod in locis humidis nascitur. 46. (498, 26) Colustrum: lac concretum in mammis.

The last should have come after the twenty-second item in our list, but has been reserved as a stepping-stone to the glossary which we have now to consider, the one so often referred to as 'a kindred glossary.' It is printed by Goetz in Vol. V. (pp. 259-337) from a ninth-century MS. in the Amplonian collection at Erfurt (Amplon. Fol. 42), and is called by him the 'second Amplonian Glossary' (Ampl. II.). It brings us into touch with England, for it contains many Anglo-Saxon words, e.g. (330, 50) Sambuca: lignum, elle Saxonice. Now it may appear strange that only Festus, and not Nonius, figures in most of these glossaries. But the one and only archetype of Nonius seems to have belonged to an English monastery, and the Compendiosa Doctrina may have been unknown on the Continent until Alcuin came to Tours. So we could not expect to find a Nonius gloss till we reached the 'Franco-Saxon' region, the littoral opposite England. The last gloss in our list echoes exactly Nonius 84, 7 Colustra, lac concretum in mammis. It is a gloss shared by Ampl. II. And the fusion of the glosses Catax and Consentaneum, which gave us a clue to the source of the Festus glosses of Aff., becomes intelligible from Ampl. II. which offers Coltax instead of Catax, thus relegating the gloss to the CO-section and making it a possible neighbour of Consentaneum. A palaeographer can make a guess at the 'causa erroris,' an Insular (i.e. English, Irish, etc.) variety of a known as 'high-backed a,' which might be mistaken for ol (more often for d). The MS. of Abstrusa used by 'Ansileubus' (so we are wont to name the compiler of the Liber Glossarum) had the same misreading Coltax. The two (four ?) earliest MSS. of his compilation belong to Northern France and use abbreviation-symbols of the English type. Since Placidus (with the pseudo-Placidus) was one of his sources, we may expect to find in Ampl. II. traces of ps.-Plac. as well as of Nonius.

Ampl. II. describes itself as a composite of two (or five) glossaries: II. (V.? hardly 'secunda') Conscriptio Glossarum (i.e. glossariorum) In Vnam, quibus uerba quoque et nomina alia mixtim uel Latina uel Saxoniae inseruntur. What the constituents were is a question alien to this article, whose chief concern is with Festus glosses; and the new Festus glosses which Ampl. II. contributes (presumably from an old MS. of the composite Abstr.-Abol. in Insular script) are few. But Goetz' Thesaurus Glossarum, which emends and arranges the contents of his Corpus Glossariorum, provides promising material

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53) Dunt: at ex toto, ssim: absoxamussim: ritinniunt: a. (522, 24)

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Procapis:

for disentangling the skein; and anyone who will undertake the investigation will find much to interest him. From four glosses (272, 10; 272, 17; 272, 19; 279, 22) we can reconstruct an archetype like this:

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Brumalia ssuos bracatos habet Brumaria: rosina pluuia Bracata Gallia: Gallia quae incolas Comata Gallia: 1 quae comatos habet.

Brumalia, the suprascript correction of the miswriting 'Brumaria,' was followed by the 'overflow' of the gloss Bracata Gallia (misspelt -lea). The overflow was not detected by the compiler of Sangall. (594, 16 Bracata: gallea, galeata) and (the archetype of) Leyden 67 E (692, 47? Bracata Galliaque incola situs est). Both try conjectural 'emendation.' A Festus gloss (possibly transmitted through Philox.) in which Ampl. II. again reveals the archetype's form is, I think, the gloss Agea, with the interpretation (263, 51) uta gyrum nauis. The first word is clearly uia; the second, if it is a noun in apposition, means 'the circuit': the whole implies that our compiler visualized Ennius' word as a way round by the bulwarks, not down the centre of the ship. Another compiler emended uta to unda, and thought of the wash of the ship (Corp. Gloss. Lat. IV. 479, 26 recurrens unda). Another discovered the right reading uia but thought of the way of the ship through the waters (V. 490, 44; 520, 9; 560, 30 uia nauis in aqua dextra laeuaque). The importance of Ampl. II. for the reconstruction of glossary-archetypes is clear. And anyone who will undertake to collect the Virgil glosses mentioned above will get much help from it, since it often preserves the Virgil batches in more or less coherence: e.g. (262, 68-263, 2) Aestate noua: uerno tempore (Aen. I, 430); Aestus: uaporis calor (Aen. 2, 759); Aethiopes: homines nigri (cf. 291, 6), unde > Aethiopium: nigrum, Aethon: tertius equus Solis (Aen. 4, 481); Aequatae: planatae (Aen. 5, 844); Aegida: scutum Mineruae (Aen. 8. 354 or 435); Aetherium sensum: caelestem spiritum (Aen. 6, 747). Correct the error of Thes. Gloss. s.v. Aequo (and of the Latin Thesaurus I. col. 1022, l. 47).

In continuing, with the help of Ampl. II., our list of possible Festus glosses we are in danger of including some that stand twice removed from Abol. (or Philox.), glosses on the words of a writer like Aldhelm, who made a practice of culling strange words from glossaries and inserting them in his writings, e.g. 'circili' in Epist. Eahfrid. col. 93 Mig., culled from the Abstrusa gloss (33, 3) Cercilius: nauicula (possibly a transcriber's mistake for Cercurus, which, according to Nonius 533, meant 'nauis pergrandis'). The continuation may begin with the just-mentioned gloss Agea: 47. (263, 51) Agea: uia gyrum (gyrus ?, gyro ?, in gyrum ?) nauis. 48. (260, 8) Abarcet: prohibet. 49. (262, 8) Adescit: aderit. By a lucky accident we can prove that this item does not

Ulterior: longe nobis. The compiler was not a Spaniard nor an Italian. On the third of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> With this geographical gloss may be compared another, probably from the same collection, (333, 50) Spania Citerior: adhuc et ad nos; Gallia trio, Togata Gallia, see Thes. Gloss.

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come through Philox. For the compiler of Philox., mistaking the aderet of his source (Festus ?) for adhaeret, made his gloss (6, 35) Adescit: κολλάται (!). 50. (262, 8 and 20-21) Ador: genus farris, Ador: farris genus, Adoreis: uictoriis. Philox. cites Festus (8, 21) Ador: νίκη, ὡς Πομπήιος. (Cf. Paul. 3 Ador, farris genus, etc. Adoriam laudem siue gloriam dicebant, etc.). Nonius has (52, 14) Ador, frumenti genus . . . unde et adorare, etc. The Nonius Glossary, published in Corp. Gloss. V. 637 sqq. from a Leyden MS. of Charlemagne's time, has (649, 14) Ador: frumentum, ab <ad>orando uocatum. A marginal gloss on a passage of Phocas' Grammar (Gram. Lat. V. 416, 9), where the word ador occurs in a list of nouns ending in -or, offered Ador: genus frumenti. This marginal gloss, taken from Nonius, became an item in another Leyden Glossary of Charlemagne's time compiled from marginalia of certain books (Voss. O. 60; see Hessels' edition, s.v.). Our gloss suggests Festus; and since we have grounds for believing that Ampl. II. contains Abol. items which are omitted by Vat., we may believe either 262, 8 or 262, 20 (or both) to be a Festus gloss of Abolita. But with reservations only; for we must remember Servius' note (on Aen. 7, 109) ador proprie est genus farris. And the gloss Adoreis might come not directly from Festus, but from a marginal note on such passages as Paul. Nol. epist. 18, 10 adoreis coronatum. All this illustrates the uncertainty which dogs our footsteps when we have to do with glossaries in MSS. of Charlemagne's time or later. 51. (269, 5) Atellanus cantor e Campania; Atella enim ciuitas est in Campania. 59. (270, 38) Batioca: patera. 53. (272, 28) Brocchus: qui labrum superius tumidum habet. Cf. Philox. 31, 20 Brocchus: ὁ τὸ ἄνω χεῖλος ἀδηκώς. 54. (276, 16) Cette: date. Cf. Nonius 120, 31 Cette significat dicite uel date. The Nonius Glossary has (639, 4) Cette: dic<i>te. 55. (277, 4) Cillit (-et): quatit, concutit, mouet (reversed in 283, 11). 56. (277, 10) Cilo: homo caput longum habens. Cf. Cyrill. 364, 16 Μακροκέφαλος: cilo. 57. (278, 6) Clacendix: concha. 58. (278, 7) Clarigatio: pignoratio rerum. Cf. Philox. 101, 56 Clarigatio: ἐνεχυριασία, ὁμηρία. 59. (278, 8) Caudicariae naues onerariae. 60. (279, 42) Contamini: interrogamini. The AA Glossary has (446, 68) Contasti: interrogasti. Since the traditional text of Plautus Cas. 571 (Rogitare oportet prius et contarier) is badly in need of support, I do not like to keep back these two witnesses, doubtful though they be. And why conto(r), I ply the punt-pole,' 'investigate' should not have existed before percontor is hard to see; or why prius, the original quantity, should not have been recognized by Plautus along with prius, as rei with rei, fui with fui, not to mention illius with (un-Plautine?) illius. To emend a traditional Rogitare oportet prius et percontarier; to substitute what ought to be the older setting, Rogitare oportet prius et contarier, this would be bold but justifiable. But to refuse to accept the antique setting when all our MSS. present it is mere folly. 'Take the good the gods provide thee.' 61. (281, 62) Conliquiae: imbrium collectio. 62. (281, 68) Conuasassem: furassem. A Terence gloss; cf. Nonius 87, 27. 63. (282, 21) Cracentes: graciles. 64. (282, 39) Crea: stercus, spurcitia;

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unde excreare: spurcitia < m > eicere. Cf. ps.-Plac, 13, 22 Crea: stercus; unde nos ea quae ex ore abicimus excreare dicimus, id est expuere. 65. (285, 30) Demagis: uehemens. Cf. Philox. 42, 29 Demagis: σφοδρώς. Our compiler probably misread σφοδρός, although the adverb uehementer appears in the Abavus maior Glossary. 66. (287, 17) Diabatra: genus calcei muliebris. Naevius' famous description of Dionysus may have been quoted by Festus both s.v. Diabathra and Epicrocum. 67. (287, 34) Dicier: dici, constitui. This cannot be a Persius gloss, for in his line the verb does not mean 'appoint.' 68. (288, 11) Euitauerit: effocauerit. 69. (294, 47) Ferentarii: signiferi uel uexilliferi. Is this a misunderstanding of Nonius 554? 70. (297, 25) Futat: arguit. Cf. Philox. 74, 45 Futat: ελέγχει. 71. (299, 63) Hallus: sextus digitus (!). 72. (324, 65) Praefica: mulier lamentatrix ante feretrum. Possibly a misunderstanding of Festus (cf. Paul. 250 quasi in hoc ipsum praefectae). This gloss formerly was neighbour of the item (320, 26) Pergenuat, an indication that the glossary has, in our MS., departed from the earlier arrangement. 73. (327, 40) Ramuscularios: qui ramulum unum tenent, id est qui conducunt a fisco et tenent quasi portiunculam quandam ipsius teloni. An interesting gloss of uncertain origin. 74. (329, 42) Rumen: quidam sinus in gula certorum animalium in quo seruant cibos quos propterea narrandus (leg. postea massant?). 75. (329, 43) Rudis: uenia et emissio amphitheatro ut iam non pugnent gladiatores. 76. (329, 53) Rudus: stercus quod de domo mundatur. Does not agree with the Festus lemma. Possibly from an explanation of eruderare, an ecclesiastical Latin word. 77. (329, 55) Rudens: asinus (-ni?) uox (uocans?). Cf. Fest. 322 Rudentes, restes nauticae, et asini cum uoces mittunt. 78. (331, 63-332, 1) Seplasium: uicus in Campania ubi sunt unguentarii, Seplasiarii: qui ibi sunt. 79. (332, 62) Sigillaria: a signis; quasi signa sunt enim ueterum temp(orum?) 80. (333, 17) Sodes: si audis (leg. -es). Cf. the Nonius Glossary (647, 69) Sodes: si audis. Cf. Nonius 177, 21 (Sodes, non ut apud comicos, sed: si audes. Cicero in Oratore . . . 'ut sodes prout si audes'). Cf. Fest. 382 Sodes, si audes. Another illustration of the uncertainty attending a Carolingian gloss. How can we determine the actual source? The next pair should perhaps be omitted. 81. (535, 35) Vestiarium: erogatio uestis quam accipit miles. 82. (335, 48) Vexillatio: numerus militum cum uexillis. 8. (337, 23) Utpote significat ut possumus, ut potestis, ut possunt; nam 'pote' et 'non pote' potest et non potest dicunt Tusci (leg. rustici ?).

Our glossary has suffered greatly in transcription. Often we could hardly recognize a gloss without the help of kindred glossaries. Where these fail us extreme caution is necessary. Now indeed that we have learnt that one constituent is a Virgil collection we need not hesitate to refer to Aen. 1, 3 and 5 the pair (311, 44-45) Multum: diu, Multa quoque: diuersa post circumdatus (?) And we may find the per ora nouem of Aen. 1, 245 in the confused transcription of (319, 42-43) Peroram nomen, Pernem ouem perouem. But Loewe was too rash in his emendation of (283, 24) Damde date. He proposed Danite: date.

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We have no reason to look for this n-form outside the 3 Plur. (danunt, explenunt, nequinunt, etc.). If we could light upon a passage in any author where dandae could be understood (misunderstood) as datae, the simple and certain emendation would be Dandae: datae. Or it may be a 'headless' gloss, e.g. < Daticiae>: dandae, datae. An Early Latin comparative cluuior and superlative clarimum are welcome. But we cannot be sure we have them in (282, 38) Criuor: nobilior, (277, 47) Clammum: clarissimum, until Abauus Maior comes to the rescue with Cluuior: nobilior, and the Liber Glossarum with its Clarimum: clarissimum. Nor may we venture to connect the forago of Festus (cf. Paul. 80) with the corrupt (293, 36) Fate (-etum): foragem (far-). The corruption is quite as likely to conceal Vortex: uorago. Nor yet is lucrio assured for (309, 14) Lucar: uenator (leg. fenerator?) auarus. Nor impuratus for (321, 4) Pi[r]atus: sceleratus, purga bi bis, piabilis. Nor rupex for (329, 54) Rupem: saxum fortem. Rather forte 'large', as forte (portae MSS.) 'loud' in the Abolita gloss (102, 45) Iubilum: sibilum ('whistle') forte. A Virgil gloss (on Aen. 9, 486) may lurk in (297, 33) Funus funera replentes sepultura plangere sepelire (e.g. <Funera>: funus, Funerae: flentes <in> sepultura, <unde> plangere: sepelire).

The English branch of glossary-tradition deserves respect, for the halfuncial Corpus Glossary (now in the library of Corpus College, Cambridge; formerly of Canterbury) has been ascribed by Bradshaw ('non futtilis auctor') to the closing years of Aldhelm's life. In the gloss just mentioned, it offers Dande: date. A Latin word (unknown to our dictionaries) for 'byre' lurks in its Bolia: stabula boum. (Cf. Gram. Lat. I. 551, 15 Bouus: βουκόλιον; I. 75, 15 bubus, only Sing.; the glosses cited in Thes. Gloss. s.v. Bucolia, e.g. the Abavus gloss of bilingual origin, IV. 314, 53 Bulum: bucolium pastoris.) The Epinal Glossary (formerly at Moyenmoutier) in the same type of script, Anglo-Saxon half-uncial, may be as old; although Sir E. M. Thompson pronounces for a hundred years later, the beginning of the ninth century. So that the Abolita glosses in this English group give us a glimpse at some very early MS.1 which found its way to England (or to English foundations in the adjacent part of the Continent). Their Plautis auribus: magnis (V. 383, 39) enables us to correct the form of this Festus gloss in Vat. and Cass. Italy seems to have got the Abolita glosses from a minuscule MS. of Spain in which Abolita was combined with Abstrusa. Until a special investigation has been made. we may accept as likely the hypothesis that the same (or another) Spanish minuscule MS. of Abstr.-Abol. found its way to England; for Spanish symptoms like pro for per are perhaps still visible in the English group. The Abstrusa gloss Bubulcus, written as a Spanish scribe (and other scribes too) would write it, Vuuulcus (Vubulcus), appears in the V-section of Vat., Cass., etc. In the MS. which reached England ununleus or unbuleus (with Spanish minuscule v) was at first deciphered by the English transcriber as aubulcus. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Abstrusa gloss Falarica has its right form in Ampl. I., whereas all other glossaries for (h)astas.

suprascription of the correct opening syllable produced aububulcus and the like. The Corpus Glossary (see Hessels' edition) has Aubulcus: pastor bouum; the Épinal Glossary, Aububulcus: pastor bouum. There is an Abolita gloss Arcites: sagittarii. It appears in Vat. as (21, 18) Arcistes: sagittarius. In the MS. which reached England it had the same corrupt form. The Corpus and Épinal Glossaries have Arcister: strelbora (Ags. for 'shaft-bearer') as well as Arcistis: sagittarius (-ris). Aldhelm adorns his letter to Eahfrid with the phrase 'utpote belliger in meditullio campi arcister'. The interpretation of the gloss Balbus in the English group is curious, Balbus: qui dulcem linguam habet. It reminds us of Chaucer's friar:

Somewhat he lisped for his wantonness, To make his English sweet upon his tongue.

The Épinal Glossary is what is usually called the 'First Amplonian Glossary' (Ampl. I.). Goetz prints it (in V., pp. 337-401) not from the Epinal MS., but from the Erfurt MS. already mentioned. From Loewe's account (Prodr. pp. 113 sqq.) it too appears to be a 'duorum conscriptio glossariorum in unum'. The two constituents were kept distinct. The second, arranged by AB-, resembles Ampl. II.; the first, arranged by A-, resembles the Corpus Glossary. In discussing Ampl. I. glosses we must therefore mention whether they belong to part ii. of the section or part i. From part ii. we can glean for our list the following items (omitted in Ampl. II.): 84. (346, 41) A[u]xillae: alae minores. Probably from Philox. 26, 43 A[u]xillae: μικρά πτερά, ώς Bάρρων. But Philox. took it from Festus. 85. (355, 36) Cascum: antiquum. This gloss appears also in part i. (351, 39). Cf. Cyrill. 392, 32 Παλαιός: uetus, uetustus, cascus. 86. (363, 57) Genusia (leg. Ger-): senatus. 87. (383, 40) Plutus (leg. Petilus): gracili corpore. This gloss follows Plautis auribus: magnis (already mentioned), which accounts for the Épinal MS. reading Plautis (for Plutus). Part i. of Ampl. I. draws occasionally from the Virgil commentaries of Servius and 'Servius auctus' (i.e. Donatus?), items which we may ascribe to that full version of Abstrusa which I would call 'Abstrusa maior': e.g. (364, 33) Hera: terra, unde heroes, (364, 43) Hernae: saxa Sabinorum lingua, (369, 35) Lucumones: reges. Also from Isidore, e.g. Deportatus (355, 65) and Relegatus (386, 40). So we must glean with caution: 88. (361, 32) Forda sus: praegnans. 89. (371, 19) Murcus: curtus. 90. (380, 40) Portisculo: malleo. Cf. Aldhelm de Virg. (prose) 2 hortante proreta et crepitante naucleru portisculo. The Ampl. I. i. glosses usually suggest a source like Philox (or III.). A Nonius gloss is apparently (351, 33) Culina: coquina.

Another of the English group (printed in II., pp. 563-597), the third glossary in the Erfurt MS., known as the 'Glossae Nominum' (Gloss. Nom.) or the 'Absonum Glossary,' need not detain us. Goetz (in his preface to Loewe's unfinished edition) pronounces it a very ignorant compilation from bilingual sources; e.g. Cyrill. 217, 2 ('Αγορανόμος: aedilicius) appears as (565, 14) Aedilicius: publicae legis gnarus; Cyrill. 470, 41 (Φηγός: fagus,

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aesculus) as (565, 8) Aesculus: uorax. We may however credit the compiler (or the scribe?) with conscientiousness for his (568, 16) Aritudo: siccitas; apitudo in exemplari hab(etur). Omitting the (possible or probable) Festus glosses which are to be found in our Philox. and in our Cyrill. and those known from the other glossaries already mentioned, we may add from it to our list: 91. (564, 18) Adasia: pro senectute sterilis. Presumably a misrepresentation of a Festus gloss of the bilingual source, since our glossary exhibits ludicrous mistranslations of Greek words. 92. (573, 35) Cliue: difficile. Cf. Paul. 56, 20 omnia enim difficilia cliuia uocabant. 93. (576, 20) Deuerbium: canticum quod ante mortuum canitur. 94. (580, 42) Fritamentum: uox

merulae. 95. (581, 12) Galas (leg. Cala, i.e. Kâλa): genus ligni.

In spite of the compiler's ignorance, Gloss. Nom. should be investigated. We must, I think, accept the statement in the title 'Item Aliae XVI. Exiguae Secuntur,' that the compilation was made out of sixteen small collections (possibly the 'glossae collectae' of sixteen texts). Since only nouns (and adjectives) were selected, the field for selection would have to be large (though indeed the Leyden Glossary edited by Hessels is amassed from forty-eight). That separate 'Glossae Nominum' and 'Glossae Verborum' were in vogue we may infer from the second half of the title of Ampl. II. (already mentioned), with its distinction of 'uerba' and 'nomina.' An Irish compiler would know Greek: Englishmen learned in Ireland the little Greek they knew: the natives of the 'Franco-Saxon' region would know practically none. While bilingual collections may indeed have reached France from (South) Italy, the more natural route would be from Ireland through England. So any investigation of Gloss. Nom. and other glossaries which draw from bilingual sources should watch for a clue to (South) Italy or to Ireland. The only clues I have noticed to the history of Gloss. Nom. are: (1) The certe in the item Legio (586, 20; cf. certus in the Abavus gloss), emended by Goetz to circiter, may be a first attempt to decipher the 6000-symbol which is preserved in this item in a glossary written at Cambrai after 831 (Laon 201), viz. the sickle-shaped 6-symbol with a stroke above. This symbol I have never found in an Insular MS. In the Cambrai MS. it is followed by the words sex milia. (2) There is a fusion of two glosses (or three, if we add Manducare) at 595, 20, Teritigo (leg. Tentigo) and Maturissime. The former seems to come from Cyrill. (308, 19), the latter to be a marginal (and therefore imperfect) excerpt from Charisius 205, 12 K. bearing on the adverb (!) maturissime. How did the Charisius excerpt come there?

St. Gall was a meeting-place of Italian, Frankish and Insular (English as well as Irish) culture. Since Sangall. has glosses of the 'English group,' it is possible that our theory of its Bobbio origin is not the whole truth. (The Bobbio glossary fragment, published by Pascal in Boll. Filol. class. 11, 88 from the eighth-century MS., Ambr. F. 60 sup., is an excerpt from Sangall.) The St. Gall. MS., written in that rude uncial which is so hard to date, may indeed be as old as Vat. But since it is a composite extract-glossary, it offers

no such secure footing for the hunter of Festus glosses as the Abolita portions of Vat., where we have an uninterpolated (though probably defective) text of a compilation which appears to have begun each section originally with a batch of Festus items. It seems unadvisable to extend our inquiry to the other patchwork extract-glossaries of Charlemagne's time or later. We cannot hope for certainty there.

But there is a small glossary, the Ab Absens Glossary (Ab Abs.), which provides some additions to our list. It is printed (from the same Leyden MS. as Aff.) in IV. pp. 404-427, with an apparatus of variants culled from half a dozen MSS. (e.g. an eighth-century MS. from the St. Gall scriptorium). Its Festus glosses, as Goetz has pointed out (De Astrabae Plauti fragmentis, Jena, 1893), are practically confined to the A-section: their source seems to be Philox. (e.g. the gloss Adasia, already cited from Gloss. Nom., appears with the interpretation 'ouis major natu'). Excluding items already gleaned elsewhere, we get: 96. (405, 7) Aemidus: tumidus, sufflatus. Cf. Philox. 12, I Aemidus: πεφυσημένος. 97. (405, 11) Aequilatium: aequatio. Goetz' identification with the Festus lemma Aequilauium seems very doubtful. It may be a late Latin coinage. 98. (405, 33) Albula: fluuius in Italia qui nunc Tiberis uocitatur. Rather a Virgil gloss (from Aen. 8, 331) than a Festus gloss. 99. (405, 43) Amusus: tacitus, non mutiens. Possibly a mere medieval explanation of aμουσος, possibly the Festus gloss Amussim deflected (and distorted) through a Philox. channel. 100. (406, 14) Arculus: circulus; quod ubique arceat. Possibly another medieval etymology. 101. (406, 28) Astraba: tabella ubi pedes requiescunt. Cf. Philox. 22, 15 Astraba: σανίς ὑποπόδιον. Also the Ags. gloss Astraba: fotbret ('footboard'). 102. (406, 33) Atanuium (-nulum, -nulo MSS.): genus uasis. Cf. Philox. 22,47 At[n]anulus: ἄγιον ίερέως σκεύος, κειμήλιον.

Another source of Ab Abs., as Goetz has shown, is a collection of Virgil glosses, presumably marginal notes in a text of Virgil. (So we may refer 416, 20 to Aen. 6, 162 Misenum Aeoliden.) The use of such Virgil marginalia in compiling a glossary seems to have been widely prevalent (I have not been able to see Pokrowsky's Russian article, mentioned in Burs. Jahresb. 113, 220). The glossary used by Aff. and Ampl. II. we found to draw from Virgil marginalia. The compiler of Abol. used an annotated MS. of the same stock as the MS. on which was based the Virgil Glossary (IV., 427-470, printed from the same Leyden MS. as Ab Abs.). The compiler of the AA glossary (AA) employs a collection culled from some South Italian MS. whose interpretations were often Greek (see Theander's AA Glossarum Commentarioli, Upsala, 1907; where, however, these South Italian items are not always distinguished from the Virgil glosses transferred from Abol., etc., into AA). 'Ansileubus', to judge from Hagen's (faulty) illustration of the VIRGL. items in the Liber Glossarum (in pp. 453-529 of the Appendix Seruiana) seems to have used two annotated Virgil MSS. For while phrases which occur twice in Virgil (e.g. Aen. 1, 394 and 9, 638 aetheria plaga; Aen. I, 191 and 4, 71 agens telis) can furnish three glosses, a phrase which occurs only once (e.g. Ecl. 6, 64 Aonas in montes; Acn. 2, 492 ariete crebro) does not furnish more than two (if the second item under Arte Pelasga refers to Acn. 2, 106 artisque Pelasgae, and belongs properly to No. 601 of Hagen's list). But the most valuable Virgil glosses are those in Abstrusa, for they seem to come from some (Insular?) 'uariorum' commentary (like Adamnan's); and their full form is only to be recovered from not merely the MSS. of Abstrusa used by Goetz, but from the lemmas of 'Abstrusa maior' scattered through the English group of glossaries and the Liber Glossarum. All these collections of Virgil glosses deserve investigation, and the investigator armed with Merguet's Lexikon zu Virgilius, should note any clear use of the Appendix Vergiliana; for Vollmer's details of the text-tradition might thereby be increased.

In Ab Abs. we find also Abstr. and Abol. items, presumably transferred from a composite Abstr.-Abol., and sometimes most ignorantly transferred. We must not take seriously its (405, 49) Angiportus: refugium nauis uel uia sine exitu, hoc est profugatus (-tu?) quodam. It is merely the compiler's apprehension of Abol. 17, 40 Angiportum, androna uiformium uel callem (cf. 410, 40-41 from Abstr. 70, 10). It furnishes however a variant reading, for it shows that his MS. had something like andro nauiforium (or nauiforium alone). Other absurd explanations are clearly mistranslations of Greek words in the bilingual source. But a few leave us in doubt whether the compiler is to blame or rather the medieval annotators of some texts whose marginalia he used (and the same may be said of Gloss. Nom.). The compiler may be responsible for (417, 2) Nepotes feminae: perditae feminae (elicited from Neptis: nepos femina) and (405, 2) Adueruncat (for Auerruncat): multum uerum facit; the annotator for (419, 4) Patibulum: res patens, and (420, 4) Pote: forsitan. To a parade of the knowledge of the privative particle in Greek we may perhaps refer (405, 18) Afuturus: non est futurus; of the Greek word for 'end', the colophon of the OS-group (418, 18) OS τέλος fin(is). Its (417, 6) Neli: noli is merely Neu: noli (as in AA).

However illiterate this glossary may be, its age makes it useful in gloss-tracking. The three ancient tribes of Rome were (Fest. 484, etc.) the Titienses, Ramnes (-netes) and Luceres. We get from Sangall. (278, 4) Ramnensis: tribus a Romulo constituta; from Ampl. I. ii. (388, 15) Ramnetes: equites a Romulo constituti. Our glossary offers the corrupt (415, 5) Licerceris: centurio (Luceres: centuriae?, Luceris corr. ex Lucer: decurio?). AA, which seems to draw partly from an Ab Abs. archetype, shews merely (486, 27) Titiensis clangor (apparently not one of the many Festus glosses of Abol. which AA alone has preserved for us). Our MSS. of Ab Abs. read (424, 46) Titiensis clangor: id est sonitus cum tumultu, (425, 25) Tumultus: clangor, id est sonitus cum tumultu. The truth may be that in the earlier MSS. of Ab Abs. the gloss Titiensis was unprovided with an interpretation and was a neighbour of the gloss Tumultus. (In our MSS. the items have been rearranged in fairly strict alphabetical order.) Also that a long gloss (a Virgil

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gloss perhaps rather than a Festus gloss) on the three ancient Roman tribes stood in some early glossary (Abstrusa major?) from which these (North Frankish?) compilers borrowed, and has survived only in fragments. And it is not impossible that our glossary exhibits the true form in (423, 41) Sobrius nomen est (i.e. plays the part of a noun, 'a sober man'; perhaps in some verse of the Bible), where AA shows (480, 33) Robrius nomen est (supposed to be a Juvenal gloss, from Juv. 4, 105; just as Abav. offers Stratocles: ad militiam accitus, possibly from Juv. 3, 99; compare the Abol. gloss Lysimachus: solutus belli[tis], if that is the true reading-or the more learned solutor, with Housman-, conceivably from Juv. 7. 204). AA, which abounds in 'doublets', offers also (480, 27) Rodoricus: nomen est unius regis (rather, with Theander, Roderigo of Spain than Rhodri of Wales); and this may be nothing more than an (Italian?) attempt at emendation, just as the AA item, Tiberius nomen est unius imper(atoris), may have been suggested by the Festus gloss printed next to it by Goetz (V. 486, 19). And the true form of another 'will-of-the-wisp' may be our glossary's (423, 5) Seseque: et se, ταυτολογία (i.e. repetition of se); whence the puerile glosses mentioned in Thes. Gloss. s. vv. Seseque and Seque. We get no clue to the home of Ab Abs. from the ubiquitous symbol ciū 'ciuitas' -tatis, etc. of 414, 23 and 44 and 47.

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The Abavus Glossary, printed (in IV., pp. 301-403) from the same North Frankish MS. as Ab Abs. and Aff., swarms with 'doublets'. The ignorance of the compiler enforces caution on us, e.g. in treating (318, 5) Cespcitces: glebae, aratores, rustici. This at first sight suggests that caespes was a Latin (Comedian's?) term for 'blockhead' like Plautus' frutex (Most. 13). But in the G-section we find (347, 11) Gleba (-bo): arator, rusticus; and this is clearly the Abol. gloss (83, 22) Glebo: rusticus, arator. The immediately preceding Abol. gloss is (83, 21) Gleba: cespes durus. The likelihood therefore is that the Abav. compiler merely concocted his gloss out of these two neighbouring Abol, items. We have the gloss (as so many Abav, glosses) in reversed form, the original form having been Glebae: aratores, rustici, caespites. The same Abol. gloss has produced a misleading item in Ampl. I., Glebra: arator Vernacular equivalents (prefaced or followed by 'uulgo lingua Gallica. dictum' or 'rustice' or the like; cf. Loewe, Prodr. p. 416) are common in glossaries (e.g. Manubrium quod rustici manicum dicunt), and the compiler of Ampl. I. interpreted in this sense the rusticus of his source. That he should have understood the vernacular of his source to be Gaulish Latin (or Gaulish) is an indication of the source's home.

Abav. is perhaps the most illiterate of all the glossaries printed in Vols. IV. and V. In its Rure: rupes uel petrae (388, 5) the first word is probably a mere miswriting of rupes left undeleted, like (367, 17) [Namo]:narro, (368, 29) [Nidar] nidor: odor; also probably (330, 52) [Diennium] biennium, (331, 30) [Dimus] bimus, forms which should be sternly ignored by linguists. In a more respectable glossary we might perhaps seek a trace of e.g. Rusticus: rupex uel petro (cf. Fest. 226, 25), but not in this one. Doubt attaches to its

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(381, 35) Propedat: inpedit, cohibet, prohibet (a mistake for Praepedit?). Its best point is that it has preserved for us some Republican glosses of Philox. omitted in our (practically) unique Philox. MS., glosses often accompanied by the word ἀρχ(αίως): e.g. Infans: ἀρχαίως indisertus (reversed in 352, 46); Ebitere: άρχαίως egredi (reversed in 335, 6); Inciens: ἀρχαίως gravida (351, 45); Ipsus apxalos saepius ipse (357, 36). Other examples are given by Loewe (Opusc. 102), who finds arnantia in the puzzling (310, 52) Armentia: apxaiws essentia, extantia. Its pecusius (374, 50) may be the true reading for our MS. of Philox. 144, 2 Pecuosus: ποιμήν άρχαίως. And its (377, 18) pipiunculus (from pipio 'pigeon'?) must be weighed against the reading in our MS. of Cyrill. 347, 12 Keyxpis: eloos iépanos μικροῦ, titiunculus (from titus 'woodpigeon', according to Buecheler in Arch. Lat. Lex. 2, 119). It is presumably from Philox. that it takes (319, 24) Clingit: cludit; (352, 55) Indupedat: inpedit (reversed in 354, 51 Inpedit: praepedit, indopedat); (357, 37) Hippago: aurigarius (a misunderstanding of Festus' uchuntur?); (361, 8 and 12) Limauit; sociauit; (377, 15) Pilicrepus: pilarius. Perhaps even (352, 47) Indigitat: inuocat; (372, 39) Orcinus: morte manumissus. Hardly (367, 24) Natinare (leg. -ri): negotiare (-ri); cf. Fest. 166, 6. Its Laetrus: laeuus (359, 44) is a deterioration of Philox. (120, 20) Laetrum: ἀριστερόν. The Nom. would be rather laster (like dexter). Like Ab Abs. it often retains the Greek1 word of its bilingual original and in Greek lettering. We are reminded of Festus (cf. Paul. 86, 13) by the long gloss (353, 53) Ingruit: cum turba uenit et impetu; retractum (?) est autem hoc a gruibus qui simul uolant; inde (id est MSS.) congruere conuenire est. (It may be a Virgil gloss.) Perhaps also by (323, 44 and 60) Consponsores: alterutrum fide dicentes (-tri fidem Scal.); cf. the AA Glossary's Conspopondit: pariter spondit.

The resolution of the Abavus Glossary into its constituent elements is impossible in its present strict alphabetical re-arrangement, but might have been attempted if it had remained at the A-stage indicated by the fusion at 318, 31, which shows (pace Loewe) that in this previous stage Cisiarius immediately preceded Commatibus. The two main constituents seem to (as of Sangall.) (1) Philox., (2) Abstr.-Abol. Of the others may be discerned: (3) a source of Ampl. II. (witness the grammatical group 348, 12 and 14-16, along with 349, 22 and 30); (4) the Cologne fragmentary glossary described by Goetz in p. xlii of the preface. But indeed Abavus seems to have connecting links with most of the glossaries in Vol. IV. and to furnish many a clue to their history and inter-relation.

Now that we have the Thesaurus Glossarum Emendatarum to show us what is the correct form of each gloss and what form each assumes in the various glossaries, and further to enable us to find in a moment any item of any

άχρηστος, and of 390, 7 Scuotit: cattat, βράστει. So these are Philox. glosses, and we must not change instilis to musikus. This MS. has for 388, 5 Rura: agros, uilla, possessio uel tellus, rupes uel petrae.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Scribes unfamiliar (as were most scribes) with Greek omit these. My notes from a Bodleian MS. (Auct. T. ii. 24) of the expanded form of our glossary (Abav. major) show that the true version of 366, 51 is Muscinarius: inutilis,

collection, the task of investigating the lineage and relationship of glossaries devolves on younger scholars. They are not so liable now to the error which has made so many of these dissertations valueless, the error of treating a glossary as if its items were all discovered by the compiler and not borrowed in great part from already existing glossaries. The manner of investigation is very simple. With the help of Thes. Gloss. one separates those items of a glossary which can be traced to the two main sources of all these collections: viz.: (1) a bilingual source of our Philox.-Cyrill. (a reference in Thes. Gloss. to Vol. II. of the Corp. Gloss. Lat. characterizes such items), (2) Abstr.-Abol. (a reference to any page between p. 3 and p. 198 of Vol. IV. characterizes these). Then one sifts the residue (with the help of Thes. Gloss.), separating those items which are peculiar to the glossary investigated. The items common to it with others one examines in the hope of being able to determine that this or that glossary must have used (or have been used by) the glossary investigated, or that both have drawn from a common source. Until all this preliminary work of investigation has been done, Latin glosses are not rightly available for study: a student is in danger of mistaking the casual guess of a mediaeval monk for the deliberate pronouncement of an ancient grammarian or commentator. To any volunteer let me give this advice: First read Gundermann's review in Berl. Phil. Woch. 21 (1901), pp. 974 sqq. and Goetz' article 'Glossographie' in Pauly-Wissowa.

W. M. LINDSAY.

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In proportion to their numbers the Semitic peoples have exercised a greater influence on the course of human history as a whole than any other of the large races of mankind. As far as our records carry us, it appears that the early spirit of exploration and adventure, as distinct from racial migration, had its origin with them. Even in Homeric times, the Phoenician trader or pirate was a familiar feature of the Mediterranean world. Greece, commonly regarded by us as the home of true culture, admitted that she owed to Phoenicia her first introduction to the art of writing. Semitic establishments were spread over the whole of the ancient world, and the only state that ever seriously contested with Rome the sovereignty of the world was Carthage. Though not famed more for military prowess than other races, the Semitic branch of mankind in the seventh century of our era swept over northern Africa and western Asia, overflowing at two points into Europe itself.

This last manifestation of Semitic activity had its stimulus in religion, and it was probably on this side of life that the influence of the Semites was widest and deepest. Christianity is sometimes cited as an illustration of this fact, but this is hardly a fair position. Christianity had its historical roots in Judaism, and Judaism was utterly unlike any other form of Semitic faith. The Jews were the only Semitic people who developed a monotheism, and the only one who made ethics fundamental to religion. As in the Graeco-Roman world, the earliest form of religion among the Semites seems to have been a tribal monolatry, which, by a process of interaction, developed into a polytheism. Thus Nabu, Marduk, Ea, Ishtar and the rest were, in the first instance, local deities, who were arranged into a Pantheon with the growth of the Babylonian Empire. In this respect the history of Semitic religion can be paralleled almost everywhere else in the civilized world. But there were certain aspects of Semitic religion which had no analogue in other races. The tribal sense seems to have been unusually strong, or perhaps to have endured to a more advanced stage in the history of these peoples than in that of others. All the members of the tribe were closely bound together by ties of blood, and the most important member was the unseen one, the god. His connection with his kinsmen of the tribe was thought of in different ways, and described in different terms, but there was always the sense of blood relationship between the human elements in the clan and the divine one. Thus the god was sometimes called

the father of the clan. Sometimes his superiority was expressed by the use of the term Lord or Husband, in the eastern Semitic world Bel, in the western Baal. Thus we have such theophorous names as Belshazzar in Babylon, Meribaal in ancient Israel, Ethbaal in Sidon, and Hannibal in Carthage. The god had his own home in some particular spot, or might dwell in a fountain, a tree, or a stone. It was there that he was to be approached, and it was there that other members of the tribe could enter into communion with him, by sharing with him in a meal consisting of the flesh of one of the domestic animals of the tribe. It was only under such circumstances that beef or mutton or the flesh of the camel or goat might be eaten—otherwise these animals were under a tabu.

There were also sacred persons. These were generally guardians of the shrine or home of the god, or persons otherwise connected with the ritual of the tribe. Their character was not always of the highest, as may be seen from the repeated protests of the great ethical prophets of Israel, especially Hosea and Isaiah. These sacred persons dealt in priestcraft, mantic, and divination. Originally the three classes were clearly distinguished, and in ancient Israel it was the second type alone to which the name of prophet was applied. The last class were properly called 'seers,' though with the progress of the civilization of the people they became merged in the prophets. Thus, in the more ancient narrative, Samuel is a seer, and stands entirely apart from the prophets, who formed a distinct feature in the social and religious life of the time. But probably similar types of sacred persons are to be found in all primitive religions, though they had peculiar characteristics in the Semitic world. Those peculiarities find their most striking illustration in prophecy.

Our ideas of the prophet are mainly based on the canonical prophets of the Old Testament, or rather on certain misconceptions which have sprung up concerning them. They are generally thought of as persons whose duty it was to be able to foretell the future, and no doubt they did do so. But that was only a subsidiary element in their work, a by-product of their exercise of their true function. That function—at least as far as the canonical prophets were concerned—was to be preachers and teachers of righteousness. It was theirs to state ethical principles, and this of necessity involved the prediction of consequences which would ensue if those principles were observed or neglected. But in this the prophets of Israel were unique, while they shared to no small extent in the external features common to all the Syrian prophets.

The most obvious of these external features was what is called the prophetic ecstasy. This was a peculiar psychic condition in which the subject seemed to be possessed of powers, indeed of a whole sphere of consciousness, which was denied to the ordinary individual, and to the prophet himself in normal states. He did not cease to be conscious of the world as it appeared to others, but he saw and heard things which were beyond their range. There were a number of well-marked physical phenomena connected with the condition of ecstasy, though these were not invariable. The subject might be

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affected with a certain constriction of the muscles, in which case the state resembled that of the trance. On the other hand, muscular activity might be largely increased. Leaping, bodily contortions, and loud cries resulted, which, as they tended to become regular and rhythmical, developed into dancing and song. The subject frequently experienced a kind of anaesthesia, and would slash wildly at his own body with knife or whip, without showing any signs of physical pain. In the less intense forms of the state, symbolic action was not uncommon. In I Kings xxii. II, Zedekiah makes horns of iron, to typify the victory which he promised to King Ahab, and similar action is recorded of Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel. There was a certain contagion attaching to the state, and persons coming into contact with those who were under its influence were likely to be seized with the same impulse. Thus when Saul meets a company of 'prophets,' he himself 'prophesies'-i.e. falls into the ecstasy and behaves like the ecstatics. The result was that the prophets tended to form themselves into companies, and to live a social life. These swarms of ecstatics were common all over Palestine and Syria, and were normally devoted to the service of some particular deity who was supposed to send his (or her) 'spirit' upon them. When the ecstasy fell on the crowd, it commonly happened that at length one stood out from the rest and uttered significant words, or performed some symbolic act. Thus in I Kings xxii. II, Zedekiah takes the lead with his horns of iron, and it is he who smites Micaiah for having uttered a prophecy inconsistent with the voice of the majority. It is not surprising, when one considers the conditions of the ecstasy, to find that the 'prophets' did not stand high in the social scale. Amos indignantly repudiated all connection with them, and there are frequent denunciations of them throughout the canonical prophets, who, however, differed from the rest mainly in the content of their message. Indeed the phenomena of ecstatic prophecy seem to have resembled those of insanity. Saul's ravings are called 'prophecy' in I Sam. xviii. 10. The prophet who came to anoint Jehu was called a 'madman' by the assembled soldiers (2 Kings ix. 11), and the same word was hurled at Jeremiah (Jer. xxix. 26).

While the ecstatic state was not strictly under the control of the prophet, there were certain stimuli which could be employed to excite it. Amongst the Canaanitish prophets alcohol and other drugs were frequently used for this purpose. The prophets of Israel, standing as they did for the worship of their national God, seem to have been hostile to the use of wine, which was regarded as the gift and property of the Canaanitish Baals. Certainly two of the religious guilds which were in spirit allied to the prophets, the Nazirites and the Rechabites, wholly eschewed the vine and all its products. But music and dancing were almost universally employed as stimuli, cf. 2 Kings iii. 15. Another mode not infrequently to be observed in the case of the greater prophets was that of concentrating the gaze on some object and perhaps dwelling on its name till the inspiration came. This seems to have been particularly frequent with Amos and Jeremiah, and may be illustrated from the

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first prophetic experience of the latter. At the time of his call his eye fell on the branch of an almond tree, whose name in Hebrew was shaqed. Contemplation of this object brought to the ear of his second sense the word shoqed—'awake,' and he heard the voice telling him that this was the inner meaning of what he had seen.

Another feature of the ecstasy lies in the fact that it made a more or less lasting impression on the mind of the subject. It differs here from the hypnotic state, which leaves the less impression the more complete it is. The contrary is the case with the ecstatic condition. The more tense and fervid it was, the more clearly was it recalled after it had passed. But for this we should have had far fewer records than we actually possess of the utterances of the prophets. A large proportion of the oracles of the canonical prophets have been handed down from the man's own memory of what he saw and heard whilst in this condition. An illustration may be taken from one of the earlier experiences of Jeremiah. In the year 626 B.C. Judah was threatened and perhaps overrun by the Scythians, who were then invading western Asia. It was with their coming that Jeremiah's prophetic consciousness awoke. The prophecies of this period are contained in chapters iv.-vi. The first oracles are a cry of warning, together with a hint at the desolation which the invaders are working. Then, in iv. 23-26, the prophet falls into yet deeper ecstasy, and, as he looks out on the land, the world dissolves into the primitive elements from which the universe was made. The light of creation was no more, no birds, no men; nothing but a restless sea of heaving mountain and tossing hill met his gaze wherever he turned. The prophet's record of this experience may be roughly paraphrased:

> I looked on the earth, And lo! Chaos' rude birth;

At the heavens, and from them no creation-light brake;

And I looked on the hills In their agony thrills,

And the mountains did totter and tremble and quake.

I looked o'er the ground, And no man there I found;

And the birds of the heaven had winged far their flight;

And I saw—as I faced Carmel's garden—a waste,

And its cities were shattered beneath the grim blight.

But the most complete direct account of the ecstasy in the Old Testament is to be found in the familiar narrative of the behaviour of the priests of Baal on Mount Carmel (r Kings xviii. 20-29).

Similar phenomena were to be found throughout the whole of the world made known to us through classical literature. But in most cases they are to be traced back to Asia Minor and so to Syria, and would probably all be so traceable had we sufficient evidence. A few cases may be taken.

One of the best illustrations is to be found in Apuleius, VIII. 24-29. There we have a description of the way in which the priests of the eastern goddess

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prepared themselves and their donkey, their wild leaps and screams, the swords and two-edged knives which they carried, the frenzied slashes which they made at their bare arms, and the furious blows of the whips which were the proper insignia of their priesthood. Though all rave, one is more extravagant than the rest, panting and gasping as though he found himself surfeited with the deity—'for it seems that the goddess makes people worse instead of better.'

Apuleius makes it quite clear that the phenomena which accompanied the ecstasy of these priests was practically identical with that which was so familiar in earlier times in Syria. This is obvious from a comparison of his account with that given of the priests of Baal in Kings. Their goddess was ostensibly Isis, but an examination of the records shows that there must have been a good deal of syncretism. At the close of his work Apuleius expressly identifies Isis with the great nature-goddess of Asia Minor. And the earlier accounts of Isis show that the ecstatic element was properly absent from her worship. Herodotus (II. 61) gives a description of her festival. The only ecstatic people are certain Carian settlers, who beat their foreheads with swords-in the fashion of the priests in Apuleius-and thus, says the historian, prove that they are foreigners and not Egyptians. And there is a story of the eleventh century, preserved in an Egyptian papyrus, which tells of an early point of contact between Egyptians and the prophetic ecstasy. A certain Wen-amon went on a sacred embassy to Byblos, in Phoenicia, bringing with him an image of Amon, whose worship he wished to introduce into Syria. He was at first unsuccessful in his errand, and the Governor, whose name was Zekar-baal-'Baal remembers'-sent daily to the Egyptian ship and required its departure. But after nineteen days of this there was a festival and a sacrifice in honour of the God of Byblos. He is known to classical mythology as Adonis, a name which means Lord, and has therefore some kinship with Baal. At the festival in question a noble youth fell into the ecstasy, and demanded in the name of Adonis that the image should be brought on shore, for Amon also was a god. The prophet's words were attended to, and the embassy was successful.

We may assume that the Egyptians derived their acquaintance with the ecstasy from Syria. In other directions, too, Asiatic conceptions of religion spread over the whole world. The Phoenicians were travellers and traders from prehistoric times, and wherever they went they carried their religion with them. The extent of their movements is obvious to any student of Semitic epigraphy. One of the most important of Semitic ritual inscriptions was found at Marseilles, and traces of Phoenician occupation in the form of inscribed rings and gems have been discovered in the British Isles. Where their settlements were more than mere trading factories, they left behind them features in the life and thought of the people which are unmistakable, and form evidence of their presence hardly less certain than actual inscriptions.

One of the most obvious of these was the prophetic ecstasy. This is so widely spread in the Graeco-Roman world that it is not easy at first to think of it as something foreign to the genius and spirit of those peoples. Yet there can

be little doubt that wherever it occurs it points to a period in the distant past when Syrian influence made itself felt, either by importation or by invasion. That is, in some cases Greeks themselves may have visited Syria and returned with Semitic ideas, or the Phoenicians may have entered the country, bringing with them their own worship. In any case these particular phenomena spread at a very early period in Asia Minor, with which the Greeks were certainly familiar. In two cases especially gods well known in Greece and Rome appear to have a basis in Semitic religious thought. A study of instances where the ecstasy occurs will help to make this clear.

We may begin with the West. The tradition preserved by Livy (I. 7) speaks of a prophetess named Carmenta who lived in Italy before the advent of the Sybil. Whilst this tradition does not tell us very much about Carmenta,

indicates one important fact about the Sybil, namely that she was not indigenous to Italy. As has been frequently remarked, her name seems to have Semitic connections, since it resembles the Hebrew "פיבר" (grey hairs.' On this hypothesis she is 'the old lady of Cumae.' We have no means of knowing how far Virgil's description of her is based on contemporary observation, but it cannot be denied that it presents features which are strange to Roman religion as we know it. Thus:

Cui talia fanti
ante fores, subito non uoltus, non color unus,
non comptae mansere comae; sed pectus anhelum,
et rabie fera corda tument; maiorque uideri,
nec mortale sonans; afflata est numine quando
iam propiore deo.

Aen. VI. 46-51.

This condition is maintained throughout her first utterances, cf. ll. 98-100, but later she grows calmer, and is able to argue philosophically with Aeneas.

It is impossible not to feel that these phenomena are closely allied to those of the genuine Semitic ecstasy. The god in question is Apollo, and if Virgil suspected that there was anything non-Italian in his description, it is probable that his mind travelled to some Greek oracle such as Delphi. What he does not seem to have realized is that these phenomena were not primarily Greek, but came from somewhere further east. Yet Cumae was a Phoenician settlement, and there can be little doubt that the Apollo of that place was a Baal, somewhat disguised, but still recognizable through the veil of Greek and Roman attributes.

One of the most familiar and impressive passages in Greek literature is to be found in the Agamemnon, Il. 1072-1330. The travellers have returned from Troy in victory. The king has been induced to enter the house where his doom awaits him at the hands of his faithless wife. One alone remains outside, the captive princess, Cassandra. Clytemnestra makes an attempt to persuade her to follow her master, but finds her dumb and immovable. The queen retires, and as soon as her back is turned the spell that has been laid on

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the lips of Cassandra seems to be loosed. She breaks out, but it is into no ordinary speech. Her first words are a wild and almost meaningless appeal to Apollo. One feels the shudder that runs over the chorus and the horror with which they are overwhelmed. As Cassandra's words grow clearer, it becomes evident that she sees something on the roof of the palace which is invisible to the rest, and through her disjointed cries the picture gradually reveals itself. The prophetess sees the forms of the victims of that ancestral blood-fiend who in every generation has exacted his toll of the House of Atreus, and in particular the twisted and dismembered figures of the children of Thyestes. The chorus are infected by her passion, and the scene developes into the Kommos of the play. Cassandra at last resumes a more normal tone, though the emotional tension is still extreme. In 1. 1178 she is calm enough to speak in iambics, though the vision has not faded. Nor does it till its place is taken by a picture of the fate of Agamemnon and herself. And even at the end, the house, to her, reeks of blood.

We have in this passage all the familiar phenomena of the Syrian ecstasy. We have the consciousness of the two worlds, the one which ordinary men inhabit and that which is obvious to the sight and hearing of the prophet alone. There is the realization of them both at the same time; while she sees the horrors on the roof, Cassandra is able to carry on her conversation with There is a suggestion of the infectious character of the ecstasy; the chorus, though they cannot see and hear what Cassandra sees and hears, are caught by her passion, and in the Kommos proper utter lyrics hardly less powerful than those of the prophetess. The effect of the ecstasy is far from being transient; it leaves its mark on Cassandra even to the point where she leaves the stage and enters the palace. There is the tendency to violent and symbolic action, exhibited when Cassandra, in l. 1267, strips off the emblems of Apollo and hurls them to the ground with some gesture of contempt or fury. Such was the view taken by Aeschylus of the character of the Asiatic prophetess. These phenomena do not appear in the case of the Greek gods proper. Calchas receives his oracles in other ways. The deity who inspires Cassandra is a Baal.

The further research can carry back its enquiry into the origin and character of Apollo, the clearer does it become that this is his true nature. Attempts have been made to locate him with the aid of philology, but these are always open to dispute, and do not really lead to any helpful conclusion. Thus the identification of Leto with the name of the pre-Islamic goddess Al-lât is certainly attractive (the Al- is simply the Arabic article), but is insufficiently attested by historical evidence. But there is more reason to believe that Apollo was an Asiatic deity in the first instance. One naturally thinks of Apollo as coming from Delos, but this is a comparatively late form of the legend. In 11. IV. 101 his birth is placed in Lycia—Nuceios has nothing to do with wolves—and though in Od. VI. 162 mention is made of an altar of Apollo in Delos and in 11. IX. 405 there is a reference to the connection between Apollo

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and Delphi, the first direct statement to the effect that Apollo was born in that island appears in the Homeric Hymn to Apollo. Apollo was a later importation into Delos, as appears from the fact that the worship of Astarte and Atargatis—both forms of the Syrian Mother-goddess—was carried on there. Apollo must have entered in the same way. The fact that Apollo in Homer commonly has two names, 'Phoebus Apollo' suggests a composite origin. If that be so, then the first name is clearly Greek, and the second will be a foreign one. Moreover in Homer he is the only god of importance who consistently appears on the side of the Trojans. The other deity who does so is Aphrodite—a typically Asiatic goddess. There is sufficient evidence on the historical side to show that Apollo was not a native Greek god, but an immigrant from Asia, and the association of the ecstasy with him indicates an ultimate Syrian origin.

Whilst practically every city in Greece had more or less intercourse with Phoenicia, the spot at which it would be most natural to seek for traces of her influence is Thebes. The traditions of Thebes were bound up with Phoenicia. Her legends told of Cadmus as her founder. His name is pure Semitic—DTP—and means simply 'the easterner.' Philology is not often a safe guide in these matters, but here the case is too clear to admit of mistake—as in the case of Adonis—TN. And in the case of Thebes there is more than philology. The whole story is that of migration from Asia. It is only to be expected, then, that other traces of Asiatic influence will be discoverable here. And it may be possible to find them, not in Aeschylus but in Euripides. Again, it is not to be supposed that Euripides is a safe guide to the history of the past. But in his great Theban drama, the Bacchae, we may look for what he thought proper to Thebes, and see what impression Theban rites made on him. The phenomena themselves may have been those of his own day, but they must correspond to something which was traditional in Boeotia.

The world of classical studies owes much to Professor Norwood in the matter of the statement and elucidation of the problems raised by the Bacchae. Into those problems in general it is hardly possible to go in detail here. They are concerned with artistic and theological questions which lie outside the sphere of the present study. But there is one point which does immediately concern us. That is the nature of the orgy which plays so prominent a part in the development of the plot. It may be taken for granted that this orgy was familiar to the poet, and that when he described the ravings of Agave and her companions, he had in his mind scenes which he had himself witnessed or had had described to him by eyewitnesses.

At the risk of repeating what must be familiar to everyone, it may simplify matters to trace briefly the plot of the *Bacchae*. The chief characters are Dionysus, Cadmus, the founder of Thebes, his grandson, Pentheus, in whose favour the old man has resigned the crown, Teiresias, the ancient seer of Thebes, and Agave, daughter of Cadmus and mother of Pentheus. The chorus

is composed of Lydian women who have followed Dionysus to Thebes. It is to be noted that they are Asiatics. n that portae and there. Homer n. If oreign stently rodite al side Asia, origin. e with of her enicia. קדםide in ne case lology. , then, may be t to be in his oper to

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The prologue is spoken by Dionysus himself. He is the son of Semele and Zeus, and therefore the grandson of Cadmus. His relatives, particularly his aunt, Agave, and her sisters, and his cousin Pentheus, have declined to believe in his divine parentage, and he has come to punish them. Agave and her sisters, together with the other women of Thebes, have been driven 'mad,' and have gone out to Cithaeron to celebrate Bacchic rites. After the opening choric ode, Pentheus appears, and states his determination to put down this new movement. Teiresias and Cadmus have already yielded to the stranger, and are now arrayed in the garb proper to the Bacchanals. They argue with Pentheus, but to no purpose, and the only result is a minor persecution of Teiresias. Dionysus is now brought in a prisoner, and after an altercation with Pentheus is confined in the stables attached to the palace. Then an earthquake follows-at least the chorus experience an earthquake-and the tomb of Semele is wrapped in flame. Dionysus appears free and safe, and gives an account of his dealings with Pentheus off the stage. The latter enters and at once sees the prisoner whom he has already missed, but seems quite unconscious of the ruin of the palace or of the earthquake. The dialogue between Dionysus and Pentheus is interrupted by the arrival of a messenger from Cithaeron who tells of the atrocities of the Bacchanal women. Pentheus at once determines to put an end to their proceedings by force, but is persuaded by Dionysus to dress as a Bacchanal and go out to spy on them first. From this point Pentheus himself loses his own self-control, and is as much at the disposal of the god as anyone else among the Bacchants. The two go out together, and the next person who enters the stage is a messenger who describes with ghastly vividness the death of Pentheus at the hands of the Bacchanals. Agave then appears, bearing her son's head, which she imagines to be that of a lion. She is joined by Cadmus, under whose influence she recovers her normal consciousness, and all realize the full horror of the punishment meted out by the god.

There is much relating to the Theban women in this story that cannot be attributed to divine possession on the Syrian model. The ecstasy—and this is, perhaps, the most striking difference between the two—passes off, and does not leave behind the memory of what has been seen and heard during its presence. In this respect it is probably nearer to the hypnotism which Professor Norwood has suggested than to the phenomena which have been observed in other cases. But here it may be once more remarked that what we have in the Bacchae is not history or a scientific study of phenomena, but drama. In the mind of the poet this particular manifestation of the ecstasy may have been combined with the more familiar characteristics of intoxication. This appears the more likely when it is recognized that Pentheus himself, when he sets out on his expedition to Cithaeron, is simply drunk. This is possibly the explanation of the way in which he yields to the suggestions of Dionysus in the first place. But it is also not impossible that in his case there is a suggestion of the infectious character of the ecstasy. His experience may

be compared with that of king Saul, who, on meeting a company of the prophets, joined them himself and prophesied, i.e. fell into the prophetic frenzy.

This impression is confirmed by a further study of the play. Agave and her companions are not the only persons who are under a delusion of some kind. The chorus also are faced with facts that are not facts and see things that do not happen. In their case the phenomena are more typical. They feel the earthquake, they see the palace fall in ruins. But no one else in the play is conscious of either event. Professor Norwood was the first to call attention to this difficulty, which is one of the most important in the whole problem. His solution is that the chorus were in fact mesmerized, and this is much the same thing as saying that they were under the influence of the ecstasy. Euripides may have seen the Bacchants in Macedonia or in Boeotia itself, and the idea of mesmerism might readily occur to him, or at least a comparison with those phenomena to which we give the name of mesmerism. And there is one point in which the experience of these women differs from what we call hypnotism. It is usually necessary for the practitioner himself at least to be present when the hypnotic influence is brought to bear, but when the chorus see the palace fall, Dionysus is still in his stable. Their case is certainly closely paralleled by that of Cassandra in the Agamemnon. And it may be included under the same head without doing violence to the work of Euripides.

Further evidence points in the same direction. If there is any point on which the play may be regarded as giving evidence of a historical fact, it is the fact that the religion of Dionysus was not native to Thebes, but was a later introduction. It should, however, be noted that the new god claims to have a common origin with the house of Cadmus. He appears as a Lydian, but it may well be that there were Dionysiac cults found in Lydia in the time of Euripides which were responsible for this position. He was, at any rate, an Asiatic, and a western Asiatic. He is a god of prophecy—so claimed by Teiresias, and since there is in the play no sign of the use of his prophetic gift, we may take it for granted that this was one of his conventional attributes. He was, further, the god of wine. There may have been other cases of gods of wine, and there were certainly other cases of mantic deities, but, as far as we know, the combination of ecstasy, wine and mantic finds no parallel outside Syria and those places whose cults can be directly traced to Syria. In other words, Dionysus also is a Baal.

We may, then, venture to sum up. In historical times we find certain phenomena which we group together under the name of ecstatic prophecy in many parts of the Mediterranean world. In every case we have been able to trace them back to the western coast-lands of Asia, and where our records go furthest these phenomena find their home in Syria. There they are connected in the first instance with that type of religion which we call Baalism. These features of religion gradually spread northwards, and when the earliest Greek records are available, they are well established in Asia Minor. On the way

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they attach themselves to many deities-there were many Baals in Syria-and both gods and goddesses are involved. They then proceed westwards by three distinct routes. They are sometimes carried direct by the Phoenicians, as in the case of Cumae. They also cross the Aegean through the islands, in these cases being connected with the cult of Apollo, and no doubt absorbing the characteristics of numerous local deities on the way. The third movement is by land through Thrace, and this is associated with the cult of the vineanother of the features of the Syrian Baal. There are still later movements well within the age of exact history. These are all connected with the female side of the worship of Syria. The goddess Ishtar or Astarte has the same mantic elements as the god Baal, and these are handed on to the great goddess of Asia Minor, Aphrodite, Rhea or Dea Bona, and at the same time spread south into Egypt, where they become an integral part of the worship of Isis. And in the first century of the Roman Empire they are practically universal, yet they may all be traced back to the thought and religious practice of the race which had its home in the little strip of land which lies between the Mediterranean and the Syrian desert.

THEODORE H. ROBINSON.

CARDIFF

## HESIOD, WORKS AND DAYS.

#### AN ADDENDUM.

On p. 118 I said (à propos of W.D. 742) that the injunction of Pythagoras παρὰ θυσίαν μὴ ὀνυχίζου, quoted by Goettling with a false reference, might be illuminating in its context but that I suspected it of being a figment. My suspicions were unfounded. The reference, as Mr. A. B. Cook has kindly pointed out to me, is Iambl. Protrept. 364 K.; but Iamblichus's explanation—that 'nails' stands for one's remoter kinsfolk, διον ἀνεψιάδαι ἢ πατραδίλφων γαμβροντιδιές ἢ τοιοῦτοί τωνε, with whom one should renew relations on festal days—does not seem very helpful.

Iamblichus also writes of Pythagoras: Vit. Pyth. 154, παραγγέλλει δὶ ἐν ἐορτῷ μήτε κείρεσθαι μήτε ὀνυχίζεσθαι, τὴν ἡμετέραν αδξησιν τῶν ἀγαθῶν οὐχ ἡγούμενος δεῦν

την των θεων ἀπολείπειν ἀρχήν, but the words convey no meaning to me.

A. S. F. Gow.

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<sup>1</sup> Read, as one might suppose, παρὰ θυσία.

## DREAMS, THE SWELLING MOON, THE SUN.

I. The etymologies susceptible to simple phonetic formulation and semantically obvious have, for the most part, been discovered long ago. But I cannot say semantically obvious without recording my conviction that semantic science is still in swaddling clothes. Readers of the Classical Quarterly will, I trust, find the following derivations interesting, as well as clear and semantically obvious.

υπαρ: υπνος.

2. If one adequately considers the context of Odyssey XIX. 547 he will realize that ὅπαρ ἐσθλόν was not a 'waking vision' but a 'good dream' (cf. Cicero, de Diu. § 85), one that, coming before midnight through the gates of horn, was destined to come true. The other contexts subject to lexical control, and especially Aeschylus, Prom. 486, go to confirm the interpretation of ὅπαρ by 'somnium <uerum'>, even though Virgil, Aen. III. 173, uses sopor to designate a dream that was not to come true, i.e. ὅναρ. In one word, ὅπαρ='somnium, in bonam partem adhibitum.'

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ii. ὄναρ 'somnium falsum': Lat. anima.

3. The counterterm δναρ—with Albanian and Armenian cognates that need no mention here—is from the root AN 'to breathe.' Cf. Lat. anima 'breath,' but also 'shade, wraith' (in the plural chiefly), and especially note the laying of the ghost of Polydorus in Aen. III. 67: '(animamque sepulcro | condimus).' So I interpret δναρ by 'ghost,' the wraith of a dead man appearing in the dreams that come towards morn through the ivory gates.

4. As regards the o vocalism of ὅναρ (: Cretan ἄναιρος ἄναρ), note the glosses ὁμφή · πνοή, ὁνείρου φ αντάσματα (and in Homer ὀμφή was a dream voice or 'uox diuina') and ὅμφα · ὁσμή (cf. for the sense O. Bulg. v-onja¹ 'odor'), which have already been properly derived from the root an (Lagercrantz in KZ. XXXV. 278). From an s extension of the root, as in O. Bulg. achati 'smell,' we have Lat. umbrae (Κονκκλ-) 'Animal, Manes,' to which umbra 'shadow' is a secondary development due to the unsubstantiality (inanitas, see § 5) of the shadow. The o vowel is also found in ὅν-θος 'dung,' named from its smell; ἄν-θος 'flower,' also named from its 'odor.' Forms cited under ὄνθος for a root odh have been assimilated with the sept of Lat. odor (§ 16).

5. Lat. in-anis: Nearly forty years ago, without any semantic explanation at all, Fick ascribed in-anis to the root AN (BB., II., 175). He was entirely

<sup>1</sup> In p-onja v- is prosthetic, like the unwritten w- in Eng. one; o comes either from o or a.

right. We have the form-pattern in ἔν-ορχος 'testiculatus' ἔν-οπονδος 'foederatus,' like in-ânis 'aeratus'> 'having <nothing but> air.' A perfectly parallel development is found in ἀνεμώλιος 'inanis,' which I would by no means separate from its exact synonym μετ-a[vε]μώνιος (see for relation to sense of 'wind' Liddell and Scott), with loss of νε as in ἀμώνας 'ἀνεμώνας (acc. pl.). The glosses μωνιόν · μάταιον and μωνίη · ὀλιγωριά will be false discomposites from 'μετα-μώνιος.' Dissimulation of ν ν may account for λ in ἀνεμώλιος. See Liddell and Scott s.vv., and Capelle-Seiler on μεταμώνιος (cf. Homeric ἀνεμώλια | μεταμώνια βάζειν with 'uoces inanes fundere'). Inanis is quasi 'in-der-luftig.'

iii. Σελήνη 'sweller' > moon > shiner.

6. For the root (K)SWEL 'tumere' see cognates in Walde, s.v. salum; and for SWEL 'splendere' see Boisacq or Prellwitz s.v. σέλας. As the sequel will show (§§ 15-16) both roots are to be written (K)SWEL (cf. also Solmsen ap. Boisacq l.c.). The two senses of the root KSWEL, to be studied further below, originated in the swelling or gibbous moon (cf. 'luna protumida'), and her swelling was 'splendor.'

iv. Lat. idus : Osc. eidu-', Skr. indu-.

7. A simpler illustration of the swelling moon is found in Lat. tdūs (n. pl.), the time of full or swollen moons: OID in the sept of οἰδάνω (see Boisacq, s.v.; Berneker, Slav. Etym. Wbch., p. 270). There is no sound reason, on the ground of the predominant vocalism of nominal and denominative forms, to deny to this root ε-vocalism. The truth is that the root is to be written oID | ÈID, with a grade form IID and, by secondary gradation, oD | ÈD (cf. the lexica on Lat. seco and Reichelt in KZ. XXXIX. I5 § 30; -75, § 171). For sid we have the testimony of Latin aemidus (lexical only) which appears in one glossary as aedimus. And this may be right, the transposition in aemidus being suggested by tumidus. Cf. also Lat. aestus 'tide, swell, billow,' for 'billow' seems more likely to have been transferred from water to fire than conversely. In Skr. édhate 'crescit, augetur; intumescit' the true diphthong is indeterminable, and dh for d, if not due to the synonymous Sanskrit roots

1 Germ. welle and its cognates, gathered by Boisacq s.v. είλύω, are best ascribed to the root [s]wel. The swell of the sea is living English to-day. With salum, to which oddos probably is cognate, the I.E. word for 'salt' is probably to be connected. The Greek, Latin, and Celtic forms have al from !! between vowels. In the other tongues al is from or, and the cognates are graded differently because they are differently suffixed (sől-d-). It has not been observed before that Skr. ksārá-s 'salty' is cognate with Lat. sāl, so that the root has to be written KSWEL, and the choice is open whether to define 'salt' from 'sea' (salum), or to define as 'burning, caustic,' as the lexica define ksards (derivationis causa). As regards the phonetics of the initial group ksw, which alternated with skw (see examples in § 16), the derived tongues exhibit any two (but

w/u may not precede), or any one (see Walde, s.vv. wibro dissipo; P. Persson, Beitr. p. 997, in medio; Fay, JAPA. XLIV. 108 § 3; and, with particular bearing on the present article, Zupitza. in BB. XXV. 93). Under these conditions the sept of κόλπος (see Boisacq): Germ. wölbung will come from (s) KWEL-P. O. Pruss. hlup-stis 'knee' will first have meant 'swelling,' and Baltic cognates meaning 'kneel, stumble, trot' (κάλπη) will be denominative thereto (pace Solmsen ap. Boisacq l.c.). Here also will belong σκέλος 'thigh, dick-bein' (in Homer 'ham'), named from its swelling, and Lat. scelus will have meant 'insolence' (cf. Walde s.v. insolesco) to start with, as in fact Plautine scelestus means 'insolent.' Also κάλπις 'urna' and its cognates. will have been named from an original bellying shape.

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rdh, causalis vrdh, may be ascribed to convergence of d and dh as root determinatives. The true diphthong is also indeterminable in Av.  $a\bar{e}da$ - 'scalp,' from 'swell, bulge, crown.' I find the grade  $\bar{o}d$  in  $\sigma\mu$ - $\bar{o}\delta\iota\xi$  'ge-schwulst' (JAPA. l.c.) and in Lettic  $\bar{a}da$ - 'skin.' For the compound root ( $\kappa$ )sw- $\bar{E}$ ID 'to exude,' etc. see JAPA. XLIV. II2 § 9.2 It is of great importance to note ( $\kappa$ )sw- $\bar{E}$ ID also in the sept of Lat.  $s\bar{i}dus$  quasi 'splendor' > constellation. In Lettic  $sw\bar{i}du$ , 'dawn' the original sense may have been 'swelling' (cf.  $a\bar{v}\gamma\bar{\gamma}$  'light': Lat. auget 'swells, increases,' a third or fourth attestation for the group 'tumere > splendere'). Instead of being, as I supposed (op. cit.), the preposition ksw- 'co' the prius in the root ( $\kappa$ )sw-EID 'to swell, shine' may have been from the root ( $\kappa$ )s $\bar{\lambda}U$  (§ 16).

8. Excursus on Lat. ōvum 'egg.' By the doctrine of root determinatives d and dh in OID: Skr. edh are additions to a simpler root oI, attested in Lat. u-va 'grape' and oa 'sorb' (see Walde and Boisacq, s. vv). In IF. XVIII. 505 Lidew derives the names of a group of berries and berry-trees from a root ag 'tumere,' so oI-WA in Lat. ūva will, in a sort, attest a root oI with the sense of 'tumere.' With or order cf. EI EIDH 'ire' (see Brugmann, Gr. II. 3, 374). From oI 'tumere' we have Lat. o[i]-vom 'egg' and its kin. In deriving nominal 'egg' from verbal 'swell' I follow a stereotyped pattern of thought (sunk to mere speech perhaps, a cliché). It were better, it may be. to begin with 'egg' and treat 'swell' as denominative. It is most important to observe that O. Bulg. aje 'egg' (see Berneker, l.c. p. 26) is best derived from oi, and never had a w suffix. The ovum 'sept' has no connection with the words for 'bird,' viz. Skr. vis 'the weaver' (:váyati), while Lat. avis belongs with Skr. ūti-s 'web,' ūta-s 'woven': infin. 6-tum, from a root A-WE(I). It was from the bird that man learned wattle-and-daub, plaiting and weaving. There is no philological question whether the egg or the bird came first, and ōvum is worthless to teach, what it has always been claimed to teach, IE. vrddhi.

9. Homeric  $\imath \delta \nu \omega \theta \eta : \imath \delta \nu \omega \theta \epsilon i \varsigma$ : correctly derived by Fick in the third edition of his lexicon from idno- <'swollen, humped, bent, crooked'>.  $\imath \delta \nu \omega \theta \epsilon i \varsigma$  ( $\delta$ ')  $\partial n i \sigma \omega$  describes the posture of chest (or belly) out and shoulders back assumed by one repeatedly tossing a ball up in the air, also the backward 'swell' or 'lunge' of a serpent held in a bird's talon in his effort to bite the bird's chest.

10. Ida, mons: Prellwitz is also right in connecting  $\[ \delta \eta \]$  ( $\[ i < i \]$ ) with the root of oidárw. Ovid (Her. V. 138) aptly illustrates by

in immensis qua tumet Ida iugis.

Or ίδη may have meant, in obsolete English, surge 'spring'; cf. the epithet

Lit. Gram. § 43; Bartholomae in Gr. Ivan, Phil. I. § 54; also Boisaco's article on gyáča.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Prellwitz properly derives κύτοι 'anything that contains or covers' (Liddell and Scott) from the root &υ.κυ 'tume'e, in κυίω; and Boisacq properly correlates κύτοι and εγ-κυτί 'usque ad cutem' with Lat. κυίω. On the k-k alternation see Hirt in BB. XXIV. 218 sq.; Weidemann,

<sup>§ 54;</sup> also Boisacq's article on σχάζω.
<sup>2</sup> Thanks to the misfortune of having read ε instead of ε in Lith. svēstas 'butter' I denied its connection with Av. x²svid 'milk,' 1.c. § 5.

πολυ-πίδαξ 'of many springs.' The sense of 'silva,' found first in Herodotus, will have come from the original sense of 'Hump, Bump' > hill > wooded hill. If it has d < l Lat. s-ilva may have come from the compound root sĒw-ID.

11. Ποτ-ειδάΓων (Corcyra): Fick is substantially right (I.4 p. 359) in deriving the name of Poseidon from EID 'tumere.' If we do not disqualify (see Brugmann-Thumb, Griech. Gram. § 23. I) the F of the Corcyrean inscription, ειδαΓων is to be explained as a wen derivative from EIDĀ | IDĀ 'swell, surge, billow, cf. Skr. (and Avestan) divine names and epithets like Maghdvan-, Athar-van, rtā-van. Accordingly, the vocative ειάανοη means 'undose.' The prius ποτ- is from a vocative \*ποτι 'domine' and the complex ποτι-ειδαΓων gave rise, after the fashion of Lat. Jū-piter, to the nominatives \*ΠοσειδάΓων (σ < īy); but ποτι-ιδαΓων yielded \*ΠοτιδαΓων—with subsequent levellings as between τ |σ and ει|ι. In Ποτιδάς we may have a vocative -IDĀ-WES, like Skr. γτάναs: γτάναn- or a weak stem nominative in wn-s (wn: un) in the Sanskrit weak stem Maghon- (o > au). Cf. the weak stem nominatives to reduplicated, and a few other sporadic Sanskrit participles in at, Latin -ens (gignens but also tegens), out of -NT-s, a type possibly found in Greek ἀ-τρέμας 'non-tremens': ἀτρέμα[τ], originally masculine and neuter respectively.

12. Homeric  $l\nu\delta \acute{a}\lambda\lambda\epsilon\tau a\iota$  'scheint': As F is nowhere certified in this word it may be cognate with  $\bar{\iota}dus$  'the swells' and then 'the brights' of the

moon.

13. Vedic Indu: In the Rig Veda Indu is a manifestation of Soma, which is personified Liquor, and Indu is predominantly rendered by 'drop.' Now 'drop,' if one will think of the drops collecting beneath the wool strainer—not unlike architectural guttae—may well have meant 'sweller,' cf. lexical induka-m 'bulb' (of a certain plant). But indu-may have been a more surgelike manifestation. In RV. IX. 107, 12 it is said of Soma 'river-like he hath swelled with surge, with the stalk's juice' (Griffith); cf. also IX. 96, 8, 'As thoughtful Pavamāna urge, O Indu, speeding the kine, the plant's wave on to Indra'; and in VIII. 9, 19, 'when yellow stalks give forth their juice as cows from udders pour their milk,' where we think of swelling udders and spontaneous exudations of drops of milk from overfull teats or nipples. Mention may here be made that in φλέω φλύω and their kin the senses of 'swell' and 'flow, pour' are well attested.'

14. But Indu also meant the 'moon,' predominantly in the Brāhmaṇas, and also in RV. (cf. PW¹ and Monier-Williams, two decades after Grassmann

<sup>1</sup> This semantic observation leads to a simple etymology for Skr. kyárati 'fundit, fluit' and finally 'euanescit,' a secondary sense development found also in the sept of χέω (cf. Lettic cognates in Prellwitz, s.v.). Thus kyárati may come from the root κξω/με. 'tumere,' beside which stood a root (κ)sxω 'tumere '(see § 16), whence Skr. kyō-das. 'flood, swell': Av. x3ao-dah'. By a sort of blending of Av. x4sω 'tumere' with

xav 'fundere, fluere' (in xao-tor. 'pouring-priest')
we might expect a something like yžav (yž=xž
somatized). Now in the Iranian tongues neither
x3av nor xav nor yžav are found in verb forms,
but in place of xiar: Skr. ksdrati we do find yžav
'fundere, fluere.' As I shall show elsewhere the
explanation of ksdrati as cognate with φθεlρω is
mere bravura of algebraic phonetics.

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as followed in PW<sup>2</sup>; see also Griffith or Ludwig in their versions of RV. VI. 39, 3). In the plural, indavas means moon-changes etc., i.e. Lat. 'idus,' pretty nearly. To me, with my convictions of the permanence of ritual, Brāhmanic Indu 'moon' and Lat. idūs 'full-moons' must be near cognates (cf. Lat. flāmen = Skr. brāhman, as Kretschmer, Einl. p. 128, rightly admits). But even if we define Indu by 'Drop' (in the sky), the sense of 'sweller' will inhere.

nexune 'sun.

15. Returning to the root (K) SWEL 'tumere' > 'splendere' (§ 6), I would express my skepsis about the derivation of ηέλιος from IE. (K) SĀW-EL-'sun,' for ηέλιος seems to me no less likely to be derived from IE. AUSEL 'sun,' some grade of which is said to be borrowed into Etruscan as usil (see Walde, s.v. Aurora). This AUSEL is found in the Latin proper name Aurelius, cf. '<Aureliae familiae> publice a populo Romano datus sit locus quo sacra faceret Soli, qui ex hoc Ausēli dīcebantur' (on ε cf. Thes. LL. II. 1482, 68 sq. and especially the inscription—ante A.D. 200—' C. Aurſlius [I = post-initial ε] C.f. praitor'). Now the name Austlios presents a perfect equation with Cretan ἀβελιος, cf. the glosses ἀβόος · έξ < ε >ω, ἀβώ πρωτ and ἀβώρ · ηώς (corrected from [βο]ή ώς), all with ἀf from ᾱu-s. Even if Auselios is Etruscan its auselwill represent IE. AUSEL- before it was Tuscanized to usil. Certainly ĀUSEL and cognation of Austlius with ἡέλιος are as admissible as cognation of ηέλιος with Gothic sauil 'sun.'

16. IE. KSWEL 'tumere > splendere' is by no means impugned by the derivation of Goth. sauil from (k)saw-el. We can admit a root (K)Sau ' splendere, urere ' in ὕ-λη (ῦ) ' firing, firewood, wood ' (cf. τὰ φρύγανα [: φρύγει 'roasts']='firing > uirgulta,' then 'shrubs' as a class name; see AJPh. XXXIV. 263 for Skr. ósa-dhis as 'fire-plant'), Skr. savitár- 'sun': Av. havayeiti 'roasts,' but Skr. kṣa[u]yatil 'burns,' cf. Syracus, σαυ-κόν ' ξηρόν (ksáyati). The extension (K) sau-s is found in Av. haosamna- 'exarescens' (cf. σκάλλει 'arefacit,' from sk[w]EL); see cognates in Boisacq s.v. aὐος, Walde s.v. sūdus (which is possibly directly from KSŪ-DO-. But there is equal evidence for (κ)sĂu 'tumere' in σαῦλος 'swell, swagger, dainty' etc.; σαυρή 'pars t u m i da,' in mal. part., cf. ON. eista 'testiculus' (?: ἀδήν 'swollen gland,' root δID, § 7); σαυρωτήρ 'stickprong' jutting from a spear,' σαυρή 'lizard' (cf. Encyc. Brit. s.v. chamaeleon for the swelling out of the chest and body of that species). Also of record are σαύνιον | σαυνίον which Cratinus used for 'membrum uirile,' but Menander, reversing the common equivoque, exhibited in Plautine machaera e.g., uses σαύνιον as 'javelin.' Further, Hesychius defines σαυνίου by σαθρόυ, i.e. 'putrid,' sequel sense to the sense of 'smelling,' and he also has σαυνά · ἀπαλά, i.e. 'soft,' again a sequel sense to 'rotten.' For this last group of words, though Zupitza did not trouble himself about their root meaning, the reader may also consult Zupitza in BB. XXV. 93 to advantage. For the sense of 'rotten' further note Lettic idra (: OID), the

<sup>1</sup> In Av. x8id-vant- 'splendidus' the prius is an instrumental from Ksp-T- 'splendor,' reduced— du8- 'male'—to the absolute null grade.

RV. VI. s,' pretty āhmaṇic (cf. Lat. But even here.

I would it. 'sun,' some alde, s.v. elius, cf. uo sacra i, 68 sqq. initial el h. Cretan corrected its ausely IUSEL of nélvos

d by the t (K)SĀU [: φρύγει e AJPh. n': Av. ν · ξηρόν arescens' s.v. avos. e is equal .; σαυρή en gland, 'lizard' l body of used for exhibited Iesychius sinelling,' 'rotten.' elf about

OID), the

rotten pith of a tree (see Berneker, l.c. 271). I also suspect, if I may again throw back to  $\delta_{\rm ID}$  'tumere,' that, out of the derivatives of  $\delta_{\rm ID}$ , the sept of Lat. odor 'smell' grew up, viz. from the putrefaction that so often accompanies swelling. On the vocalism see § 7. The sept of Lat.  $\delta_{\rm dit}$  'hates' will have arisen very simply from  $\delta_{\rm ID}$  'tumere,' cf. e.g. Homeric  $\chi \delta \lambda \delta_{\rm ID}$  is  $\delta_{\rm ID} \epsilon_{\rm ID}$  very eight tumefacit animum, also the definition of tumeo tumesco turgesco in the lexica. Cf. Homeric  $\lambda \nu \sigma \sigma - \delta \delta \eta_{\rm S}$  'ira-tumescens'; but, with Wackernagel (pace Fay, JAPA. XLIV. II2 § 9), in  $\theta \nu - \delta \delta \eta_{\rm S}$  and  $\kappa \eta \delta \delta \eta_{\rm S}$  the posterius  $-\delta \delta \eta_{\rm S}$  'fragrans.' For Homer this is all, excluding a proper name. This double value of  $-\omega \delta \eta_{\rm S}$  made it available for its wide development as a suffix, = '-ful.'

Latin sol.

17. The 'authoritative' primate for sol is sāw-el (in Goth. sauīl). This assumes that we yielded Latin vo and then o—followed by contraction of āo to ō, so early that no trace of hiatus remains. Others (e.g. Reichelt in KZ. XXXIX. 67) operate with sāul- in Lith. sáulé, in which case again Latin δ is a guess ad hoc. We all feel a strong impulse, I suppose, to unitary paradigms, but IE. metaplasts are no less likely. So it may be just as well to explain Lat. sōl 'shiner' as a long grade root noun (κ)swōl (Cf. κλώψ: κλέπτω), cognate with O. Eng. swōl 'sultry' (: Goth. \*swōls) swōlus, see Kluge, s.v. schwul. As long as sāwel meant 'shining' as well as 'sun,' any form of kswel that meant 'shining' was likely also to be used for 'sun.'

EDWIN W. FAY.

University of Texas.

# SUMMARIES OF PERIODICALS.

## LITERATURE AND GENERAL.

Berliner philologische Wochenschrift. 1917.

[Only the following numbers have reached us.]

Jan. 6. H. Dessau, Inscriptiones latinae selectus (G. Wissowa). Vol. III., Pars II., completing the work. A large and trustworthy selection, with brief notes and useful Indices. A. Adler, (1) Catalogue supplémentaire des manuscrits grecs de la Bibl. R. de Copenhague. Avec (2) un extrait du Catalogue des manuscrits grecs de l'Escurial redigé par D. G. Moldenhawer (Gardthausen). (1) supplements the Catalogue of Graux; (2) is more important. It contains selections from a full and trustworthy Catalogue made in 1784, but never printed, and supplements the faulty Catalogue of E. Miller. M. Hörnes, Urgeschichte der bildenden Kunst in Europa von den Anfängen bis um 500 v. Chr. (Anthes). Second edition, in which the literature of the last twenty years is taken into account. 1,330 illustrations. L. Radermacher contributes to this number a note on Soph. Ai. 434 sqq., in which he shows by reference to certain inscriptions that καλλιστεία means not 'prize for beauty,' but 'that which is fairest,' in this case Hesione; the Schol. says είληφε τὴν 'Πσιώνην παρὰ τοῦ 'Ηρακλίουs. R. compares Eur. Phoen. 214 sq. (καλλιστείματα) and Iph. Taur. 20 sqq. τὸ καλλιστείον.

Apr. 28. A. Roemer, Aristarchs Athetesen in der Homerkritik (wirkliche und angebliche) (Cauer). Part of a long review in which C. discusses the subject in detail. May 26. E. Levy, Privatstrafe und Schadensersatz im klassischen römischen Recht

Kübler).

June 2. Eranos. Acta philologica Suecana. Vol. XV. (Heraeus). The reviewer

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gives a summary of the papers.

June 16. Fr. Blass, Grammatik des neutestamentlichen Griechisch. 4th ed. by A. Debrunner, 1913 (Hermann). The reviser has done his work with knowledge and skill, and has much increased the usefulness of the book. F. Vollmer, Quinti Sereni liber medicinalis, ed. F. V. (Kind). The apparatus criticus is thorough, and references are added to 'auctores, imitatores, and testes.' There are full indices. J. Sieveking, Die Terrakotten der Sammlung Loeb. With introduction by James Loeb. I. Bd. (Pagenstecher). Very highly praised. The second volume will complete the work.

June 23. J. Geffcken, Griechische Epigramme (Mesk). Four hundred pieces well chosen to illustrate the development of the epigram from the seventh century B.C. to the fifth A.D. Brief notes give references to the latest literature on the subject. G.'s 'Studien zum griech. Epigramm' in Neue Jahrb. XX. (1917), I Abt. pp. 88-117 will serve as an Introduction to this selection.

June 30. J. H. Lipsius, Cratippi Hellenicorum fragmenta Oxyrhynchia, ed. J. H. L. (Gelzer). One of Lietzmann's Kleine Texte. The reviewer gives a list of the more important changes in the text. E. Drerup, Aus einer alten Advokatenre-publik. (Demosthenes und seine Zeit.) (Ammon). The book does not gain by the

introduction of modern politics, the comparison of Demosthenes with certain Entente statesmen, etc.; its permanent value lies in the discussion of many difficult problems of Greek history. F. Preisigke, Antikes Leben nach den ägyptischen Papyri (Gelzer). A volume in the series 'Aus Natur und Geisteswelt.' Useful to the teacher of history or of language.

### Memoirs of the American Academy in Rome. I. 1916.

I. B. Carter, The reorganization of the Roman Priesthoods at the beginning of the Republic. C. discusses the loss of the political power of the Rex and the gradual limitation of his office to the performance of priestly functions. E. K. Rand and G. Howe, The Vatican Livy and the script of Tours. Fourteen plates give specimens of the handwriting of the eight scribes. The writers assign the Livy to the period before the arrival of Alcuin at Tours. A. W. van Buren (in collaboration with S. P. Stevens), The Aqua Traiana and the mills on the Ianiculum. Describes that part of Aqueduct which exists below the new buildings of the American Academy and the mills in the neighbourhood, which were probably run by water-power from the Aqueduct. C. D. Curtis, Ancient granulated jewellery of the seventh century B.C. Gold jewellery ornamented with granulations, dating from Egypt about 2000 B.C., and also in the eastern Mediterranean, attained its highest excellence in Etruria in the eighth or seventh century B.C. J. R. Crawford, Capita Desecta and marble coiffures. E. S. McCartney, The military indebtedness of early Rome to Etruria. The primitive Latin warrior was first and foremost a spearsman, using also a shield. Later, having to withstand the Etruscans who were practised in the use of bronze, he adopted their methods. Roman camps may very possibly be derived from Terramare, either directly or through Etruria.

## Rivista di Filologia e di Istruzione Classica. XLV. 3. July, 1917.

F. Garin, The 'Scholia Vetera in Theocriti Idyllia' in Codex Estensis Gr. 87. fourteenth-century MS. belongs to the class called by Wendel the genus Vaticanum, but seems to be derived from an original less corrupt than that of U. A. and E. and preserves readings superior to theirs. It contains the Scholia to Idylls I.-XVIII. and the arguments to Idylls XIII. and XVI.-XVIII. A list of the more important readings is given. V. Costanzi, The legal status of Greece after the destruction of Corinth in 146 B.C. After examining the view of Colin, that Greece was neither formed into a province nor subjected to tribute on its conquest in 146 B.C., and that of Cardinali who, admitting its formation into a province, holds that it was exempted from tribute till the time of the Mithridatic wars, C. concludes that a tribute was imposed (with, however, the usual exception in favour of federate and free states, which will sufficiently explain such references to the 'freedom' of Greece as Appian, Mithrid. 58. and Caesar B.C. III. 3), and that if not formally constituted a province the country was yet administered exactly like one, except that it depended on the governor of Macedonia and did not obtain a separate governor till circa 27 B.C. P. Rasi, A recently discovered Christian inscription and a restoration of a Pompeian Graffito. (1) Discusses the metre of an inscription published in the Notizie degli Scavi, 1916, fasc. 4, which runs 'Hic Optata sita est quam tirtia rapuit aestas lingua manu nunquam dulcior ulla fuit in pace. (2) Argues for the reading 'formae' against the 'forma' suggested by Della Corte (Notizie, 1916, fasc. 8) in the graffito, 'sic tibi contingat semper florere, Sabina, Contingat formae, sisque puella diu,' originally published in Notizie, 1910. A. Beltrami, The epigram in honour of the painter M. Plautius (Plin. N.H. XXXV. 115). Contests the reading 'Dignis digna loco. Picturis condecoravit' proposed by Stampini in Rivista XLII., p. 593, and proposes Dignis dignus loco picturis condecoravit.'

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J. H. L. a list of dvokatenrein by the

### Wochenschrift für klassische Philologie. 1917.

Mar. 26. Percy Gardner, The Principles of Greek Art (Urlichs). Compact and practical in form, and generally concise and clear in content. M. Grabmann, Forschungen über die lateinischen Aristotelesübersetzungen des XIII. Jahrhunderts (Busse). Deserves recognition.

Mar. 26 and Ap. 2. G. Andresen, Taciti libri qui supersunt, rec. C. Halm. Ed. V. vol. ii. cur. G. A. (John). The new edition deserves to be accepted as the basis of the text of Tacitus for many years to come.

Ap. 9 and 16. W. Streitberg, Geschichte der indogermanischen Sprachwissenschaft II. 1 (Wagner). The undertaking has made a brilliant beginning, which raises the highest expectations.

Ap. 23. W. Saupe, Die Anfangsstadien der griechischen Kunstprosa (Drerup). Unsatisfactory. [A favourable review of the same work by Mutschmann appears on May 21.] G. T. Kazarow, Beiträge zur Kulturgeschichte der Thraker (Lamer). An attractive and instructive work.

Ap. 30. G. Roesch, Altertümliche Marmorwerke von Paros (Urlichs). Full of

suggestiveness outside the range of the special subject.

May 7. W. Sternkopf, Ciceros ausgewählte Reden, erkl. v. K. Halm. III. Die Reden gegen Catilina und für den Dichter Archias. 15 ed. by W. S. The new edition is so extensively revised that it ranks as an independent work. Harry Torczyner, Die Entstehung des semitischen Sprachtypus (Wagner). I. The contents are important.

May 14. M. Tangl, Die Briefe des h. Bonifatius n. Lullus (C. W.). A successful edition.

May 21 and 28. †A. Holder, Die Reichenauer Handschriften, III. 1 (Preisendanz). Left as a fragment by Holder's death, but useful and important. Every page gives evidence of marvellous learning.

May 28 (double number). N. Wecklein, Ausführlicher Kommentar zu Sophohles Philoktet (Draheim). Accurate and well expressed. E. H. Sturtevant, Labial Terminations (Wagner).

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June II. L. Radermacher, Sophokles Trachinierinnen, erkl. v. Schneidewin-Nauck. Seventh ed. by L. R. (Draheim). Praised. F. Lesser, Vocabularium jurisprudentiae Romanae. IV. i (nam-numen). Ed. F. L. (Kalb). The new editor seems to be fully competent for his task.

June 18. K. Brugmann, Vergleichende Laut- Stammbildungs- und Flexionslehre

(Güntert). Completes B.'s encyclopaedic and indispensable work.

July 2. J. Sieveking, Die Terrakotten der Sammlung Loeb, published by J. S., with Introduction by J. Loeb. 2 vols. (Bulle). The publication is of extraordinary beauty.

July 9. K. Sethe, Von Zahlen und Zahlworten bei den alten Aegyptern (Roscher). Highly instructive. J. Wackernagel, Sprachliche Untersuchungen zu Homer (Drerup). The reviewer recognizes that the book contains much valuable detailed work, but raises fundamental objections both to the author's premisses and to his results. Lisa Hamburg, Observationes hermeneuticae in urnas Etruscas (Lamer). The reviewer rejects the artistic theories.

#### CORRECTIONS.

In the Note on p. 155 and in Note 2 on p. 156, for 'Journal of Philology' read 'Classical Philology.'

The Notes by Professor Jean Wageningen on pp. 131, 140 should be deleted. They appear in the Classical Quarterly for July, 1912.

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